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ABSTRACT

This report describes a summer workshop, attended by 17 persons from 13 institutions of higher education, on the theme of "Revitalizing Teacher Education in the Mid Eighties." The first two chapters of this report describe, in addition to the workshop itself, the teacher education project which sponsored it. Chapters 3, 4, 5, and 6 contain theme group reports on: (1) "Establishing Criteria of Excellence for Quality Control in Teacher Education"; (2) "Strengthening the Professional Curriculum"; (3) "A New Imperative: Professional and Personal Growth Opportunities for Teacher Education Faculty"; and (4) "Through the Glass Darkly: From Reactivity to Proactivity in Teacher Education." The seventh chapter provides individual reports: (1) "Proposal for Improvement of Recruitment, Selection and Retention Policies and Practices for the Teacher Education Program at The School of the Ozarks" (Ruth Anderson); (2) "A State Searches for a Better Way to Teach" (William Chance); (3) "It's Time for a Planned Program of Teacher Recruiting" (Tom Detwiler); (4) "Revitalization of the Curriculum: Positive Acculturation of Ageism through Literature" (Maryann Ehle and Gray Williamson); (5) "Impact of Change on Faculty" (Jim Gage); (6) "The Governance Unit in Teacher Education Institutions" (Juanita Kirk); (7) "Individualizing Secondary Student Teacher Lesson Plan--An Action Research Plan" (Vincent Mahoney); (8) "Alternate Designs for Capturing and Holding Student Interest in a Required Course for Secondary School Biology Teaching Majors" (Tom Mertens); (9) "Structure and Functions of a Teacher Education Unit" (John McLevie); (10) "Revitalizing Teacher Education through Research: Implications of a Study at Northern Arizona University" (Lou Pollock); (11) "Pre-Student" Teaching Field Experience" (Jimmie Russell); and (12) "A Challenge to Standards: Legislation for the Handicapped" (Henry Worrest). (CJ)

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Revitalize- to give new life or vigor to.

**Vitalize- to endow with life, or vitality;
to give life to; to make alive.**

TEACHER EDUCATION

**Vital - Existent as a manifestation of life;
as, vital force, energy, power .**

***Full of life and vigor; energetic;
also flourishing.***

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IN THE MID EIGHTIES

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1983 TEACHER EDUCATION WORKSHOP PARTICIPANTS

FOREWORD

For thirty-six years the TEACHER EDUCATION WORKSHOP, which has been sponsored by the North Central Association of Colleges and Schools, has provided a means through which interested institutions of higher education can work cooperatively. The focus of the joint efforts has always been upon teacher education and higher education. The theme for each workshop is identified by the Teacher Education Project Committee of the North Central Association. As has been true in each of the previous thirty-six workshops, opportunity was provided for each individual participant to represent the home institution as a contributor to the collective efforts of the total workshop. In keeping with past workshops, efforts were also made to direct the interests and concerns of each workshopper toward the general theme of the workshop, REVITALIZING TEACHER EDUCATION IN THE MID-EIGHTIES.

The general outline of the 1983-1984 project year began with the residential summer workshop described in this report. The theme was studied, and written summaries of all of the activities are contained in this document. The written report which follows, can, at best, provide only a partial summarization of the overall cognitive outcomes resulting from the workshop. Of equal importance and significance, moreover, was a broad array of affective encounters which every participant experienced. Northern Arizona University was asked to host the 1983 workshop. The special opportunities available and the past experience of hosting the 1981 NCA Workshop at Northern Arizona University contributed much.

Interpersonal relationships among the workshopers and staff members in and of themselves made valuable contributions toward a greater understanding of the dynamics of teacher education. The housing arrangements and social activities for workshop participants presented additional opportunities for learning.

Total success of the workshop must be attributed to the efforts of each individual workshopper. However, it was through the skillful efforts of Dr. Jimmie Davis, Co-Director of the Workshop, that unity and continuity were achieved. The services of Mrs. Jean Redburn as Workshop Secretary are noteworthy. For the final production of this report, I am personally indebted to Dr. John Strouse, Chairman of Secondary, Higher and Foundations of Education, Mrs. Redburn, Mrs. Karen Willey, and other support personnel from the Department of Secondary, Higher and Foundations of Education at Ball State University, who have contributed their special skills and energies in bringing this publication to fruition.

To the faculty, staff, and administration at Northern Arizona University, indebtedness for the complete support and willing assistance, which were provided throughout the entire workshop, is acknowledged.

Donald W. Jones

Donald W. Jones, Chairman
North Central Association
Teacher Education Project



Dr. Eugene M. Hughes
President
Northern Arizona University

THIRTY-SIXTH ANNUAL REPORT OF THE
NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION TEACHER EDUCATION SUMMER WORKSHOP

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CHAPTER I
THE TOTAL PROGRAM OF
THE TEACHER EDUCATION PROJECT

Background

For thirty-six years (1947-1983) the North Central Accrediting Association sponsored the activities of its committee on Institutions for Teacher Education and the Teacher Education Project. Throughout the thirty-six year history of the sponsorship, many different activities were implemented. For the past six years the structure and direction have been provided through the Teacher Education Project which also enjoys the sponsorship of the North Central Association. During the most recent years, 1979-1980, 1980-1981, 1981-1982, and 1982-1983, the major activity of the project, the summer workshop, was also sponsored by the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education.

The most outstanding and well-known contribution of the former Committee was the support and sponsorship of a Teacher Education Workshop. As a result of internal changes in the make-up of the North Central Association itself, it became necessary to alter the support structure of the "project". The objectives and operation, however, have remained essentially unchanged. In order to gain the full impact and benefits of the workshop over a thirty-six year period to institutions of higher education accredited by the North Central Association, it would be necessary for one to study at considerable length each of the products of the total project, (1) the workshop, (2) the Presidents' and Deans' Annual Meeting, and (3) other similar activities sponsored throughout the long history of the Association. Some institutions have chosen to participate in the teacher education activities for the full thirty-six year period.

The initial chapter of this publication contains the following basic elements:

1. a review statement describing the past activities and
2. a description of the Teacher Education Project as it presently operates.

Rationale

The activities of the Teacher Education Project have served a significant service for the North Central Accrediting Association. In the past, project activities included research elements, but the major direction of the Teacher Education Project has been to provide desired services to institutions throughout the North Central Region who have chosen to avail themselves of opportunities for self improvement. Repeatedly, reinforcement and encouragement have been provided by faculty and administration representatives from the institutions served by the project. Each year an activity is identified which focuses upon an area of common concern. A nucleus of institutions (all accredited by the North Central Association) have felt a direct need for participation in this activity throughout its entire thirty-six year history.

Purposes and Objectives

The overall goal of the Teacher Education Project is to strengthen the educational programs of North Central Association and AACTE institutions of higher education through the continuation of the activities of the project. The Teacher Education Project Committee achieves this goal by supporting the following objectives.

Objectives of the NCA Teacher Education Project:

1. to provide initiative and leadership through the Teacher Education Project which will permit interested institutions to work jointly and cooperatively in studying programs in teacher education as well as general problems of higher education;
2. to invite broad institutional participation from throughout the NCA Region;
3. to provide direction to the Teacher Education Project and to maintain a constant evaluation of the project;
4. to establish and maintain appropriate working relationships with regard to project activities such as:
 - a. summer "Teacher Education Workshop";
 - b. semi-annual "Coordinator Visits" to participating institutions;
 - c. publication and distribution of the results of project activities;

- d. development of program activities for the annual NCA Meeting and for other national and regional meetings.

Procedures Identified

1. The project committee is maintained by filling vacancies from participating institutions. The Teacher Education Project Committee is comprised of from five to nine members. The normal term is five (5) years.
2. The Teacher Education Project Committee selects a chairperson and determines the total activities which will be included in the Teacher Education Project. The chairperson of the Teacher Education Project Committee serves as the Director of the Project.
3. The Teacher Education Project Committee serves as the Board of Directors.
4. Each year the Teacher Education Project Committee evaluates the project activities and makes appropriate recommendations.

Personnel

There have been no full-time personnel associated with the project at any time in its entire thirty-six year history. All activities of the Teacher Education Project Committee and the project have been voluntary. Many of the expenses of the summer workshop, including the personnel associated with this activity, were largely assumed by the Participating Host Institution. Project Coordinators are chosen from the list of past workshopppers; they are not paid for their services except for expenses and a modest honorarium.

Target Group

The primary targets of the goals of the Teacher Education Project have been institutions of higher education. The direct services to the institutions which elect to participate are obvious. In addition to the direct target services, publications supported by the Committee are available to all NCA institutions.

The workshop goals serve both faculty and administrators from participating institutions. Of course, the entire teaching profession is also served by the annual focus upon a critical problem relating to teacher education. Through the continued use of coordinator visits (as well as the alternatives presented in the Project Description), all participating institutions gain additional benefits. (See "A Guide to the Coordinator's Visit")

Product or Activities

A full explanation of the "Cooperative Teacher Education Project" follows in this chapter. While minor changes are constantly initiated by the Committee, the essential thrust will continue throughout the 1983-1984 project year. Notice of the specific "themes" will be communicated to NCA institutions.

General Purpose of the Project

The general purpose of the Teacher Education Project is the *improvement of teacher education*. Such improvement is heavily dependent upon the study of educational problems in each individual institution. The in-service growth of faculty members which is designed to qualify them for leadership assignments is another goal. It is through success in solving current problems and through the sharing of these successes that the improvement of educational programs in the participating colleges will be brought about.

Probably the greatest benefit of the project is the fact of cooperation. Similar joint efforts have demonstrated that when colleges set out to help each other, they greatly help themselves. Cooperation leads to creative effort.

Sponsorship and Direction

Members of the Teacher Education Project Committee are selected from participating institutions. Present members of the committee are:

James Chapman, President West Liberty State College West Liberty, West Virginia	1977-78 through 1983-84
Donald Deselms, Vice President Chadron State College Chadron, Nebraska	1982-83 through 1987-88
F. Clark Elkins President's Coordinator of University Relations Northern Arizona University Flagstaff, Arizona	1981-82 through 1986-87
Wayne Huddleston, Vice President for Academic Affairs The School of the Ozarks Point Lookout, Missouri	1981-82 through 1986-87

Mossie Richmond
Vice President University
Relations
Arkansas State University
Jonesboro, Arkansas

1981-82 through 1986-87

Donald W. Jones, Director
Secondary Teacher Education
Ball State University
Muncie, Indiana

1969-70 through 1983-84

The North Central Association Teacher Education Project Committee is responsible for finances of the project, for determining major policy, and for general supervision and direction of the project.

The Project Committee is assisted by a number of staff members known as Project Coordinators, who normally serve for a three-year term. Individuals presently serving in this capacity during the 1983-1984 project year are:

Donald Jones, Director
Secondary Teacher Education
Ball State University
Muncie, Indiana

Darlene Miller, Dean
School of Social and Professional Studies
Anderson College
Anderson, Indiana

John Strouse, Chairman
Department of Secondary, Higher
and Foundations of Education
Ball State University
Muncie, Indiana

Project Coordinators conduct visits to colleges, and stimulate and facilitate inter-institutional collaboration. Both committee members and coordinators devote part time only to the work. There are no regularly paid personnel connected with the entire project.

Project Activities

Summer Workshop

The annual summer workshop is regarded as a valuable means of helping staff members prepare for leadership in directing institutional development and improvement, in initiating such programs, and, in general, in facilitating cooperative thinking and sharing with reference to the improvement of teacher education. Consequently, participating colleges are expected to send a representative to the workshop each summer.

Each workshop is devoted to intensive consideration of the problems which concern the individual colleges. Workshops also provide a period for training the leadership personnel needed for continued study of problems by individual colleges during the year. Each year a report containing proceedings of the summer workshop is distributed to the participating colleges and it is nationally available for purchase at cost.

The published workshop report provides considerable insight into the processes and outcomes of the workshop, but at the same time, what is perhaps the most significant outcome of the activity is not recorded at all within the pages of this record. This outcome consists of the change that is effected within the workshopers themselves as a result of the three weeks of intensive struggle with the particular problems of their own institutions. They consult with experts and examine the professional literature on these problems and they exchange information and experiences with the representatives from other institutions at the workshop concerning common problems. Realizing the fundamental importance of systematic study of institutional problems and broadening or putting to the test their appreciation of colleagues in disciplines other than their own are also emphasized. Many facets of institutional operation and the tasks and challenges of higher education as a whole rather than simply one's own institution become apparent. Indeed, one fundamental purpose in operating the workshop is to produce these personal gains.

Over a period of several years some colleges have accumulated a group of faculty and administrators, who, having had the workshop experience, constitute a powerful nucleus for providing leadership and direction not only in institutional research, but also in other phases of operation. Such a nucleus in the faculty can mean the difference between a dynamic academic atmosphere and a dead one, between active efforts to face real needs for change and a satisfaction with the status quo, between a closely knit staff that operates harmoniously and one that has noticeably divided itself between faculty devotion beyond the call of duty and the performance only of necessary tasks. For these reasons some colleges have sent two representatives to the workshop.

Coordinator Services

The project maintains a staff of Project Coordinators, who often assist the workshop staff. Thus, they may help to provide leadership for the workshop and become acquainted with the representatives and the problems which they are studying. One of the coordinators may serve as Co-Director of the Workshop for the three-week period.

A Project Coordinator also visits each college for at least

one day each year.* The chief function of these visits is first to stimulate institutional development, and second, to facilitate the testing of the soundness of plans by the experiences of other colleges. Also, in order to provide for the sharing of experiences among the participating colleges, each coordinator attempts, during this visit to the campus, not only to impart pertinent information which he/she already has about problems and practices in other colleges, but also to acquire additional knowledge which he/she may share with other institutions in subsequent visits. The visit by the coordinator or the use of one of the following alternatives is also a condition of participation in the project.

Alternatives to Coordinator Visits*

Instead of having a visit every year by one of the regular coordinators, each college participating in the Teacher Education Project may elect one of the following four alternatives. These alternatives are open for use during any academic year upon application before October 30th by any institution which actively participated in the Committee's Project during the year immediately preceding. The deadline date is necessary in order that the use of the alternatives may be taken into account in planning for coordinator visits. Visits are normally planned to include two or three colleges in one trip so as to conserve the coordinator's time and the project funds.

1. The first alternative is that of the *Regional Work Conference*. Such an event may be planned by the participating colleges in one or two states, with or without attendance at the conference by institutions not in the project. (At least two participating colleges must cooperatively select this plan.) In general, the purpose of the conference would be to have a relatively small number of colleges work intensively over a period of perhaps two days on some rather clearly defined educational problem. Each institution eligible to use this alternative will be reimbursed for actual expenses in connection with the conference up to the amount of \$200.00 (representing the coordinator's honorarium and a portion of the coordinator's travel expenses for any one college). A portion of this sum could also be used for printing, etc. Under this alternative the committee will send one of its regular coordinators to the work conference, and will defray the honorarium and travel expenses involved. The primary reason for sending the coordinator to the conference is to have him/her meet with these campus leaders from participating institutions as a group and individually. The coordinator may also assume a nominal

* Beginning with the 1984-1985 project year, coordinator visits will be made on a bi-annual basis. On years when the coordinator visit is not scheduled, an alternative will be used.

assignment in connection with the conference, but, if he/she is given a major role, proper compensation should be given by the colleges conducting the conference. In no event, however, should this responsibility interfere with the coordinator's primary purpose of giving adequate time to the chairmen of the work conference. Finally, the colleges undertaking the work conference will be expected to prepare a report summarizing the results of the conference for distribution to all institutions participating in the Teacher Education Project. The Project Committee will bear the cost of copying and distributing the report.

2. A second alternative to the coordinator's visit is the *Inter-Visitation Plan*. A small number of colleges in the same region may join in an arrangement whereby each takes a turn serving as host to a delegation of visitors from each of the others. Careful plans must be made by the host college so that the visit will have maximum value for the staff members from other institutions, who may spend part of their time in making observations, but who also will engage in intimate discussions with one another and with their hosts.

Each of the participating colleges taking part in such an inter-visitation plan will be reimbursed for expenses actually incurred, up to the amount of \$200.00. The committee will also bear the cost of copying and distributing to the colleges participating in its project any report prepared on the results of the inter-visitations.

3. A third alternative to the coordinator's visit is the *Cooperative Research Study*. Two or more participating institutions may join in research on a common problem with, again, reimbursement made for expenses actually incurred up to the amount of \$200.00 to each college involved. These colleges will be expected to prepare a report of their undertaking. When they have concluded the report the Project Committee will defray the cost of reproducing it and distributing it to all colleges participating in the Teacher Education Project.

4. The fourth and last alternative to the visit by a regular coordinator consists of a *Visit by a Specialist-Coordinator*, and involves only a single institution. A college participating in the Committee's Project may be working intensively on some problem on which it desires consultation with an expert. It may then request the Project Committee for permission to have a visit by a qualified person. Upon arrival of the proposal, arrangements may be made for a visit during the year by such a specialist-coordinator with reimbursement for the honorarium and travel being made by the Project Committee for expenses actually incurred up to the amount of \$200.00.

In this last alternative, the specialist-coordinator will be expected to submit a brief report to the Project Committee in order that they may be kept informed on what is being done in connection with the project in the college or colleges with which he/she has been working.

Institutional Obligations

Each institution is obligated to send one representative to the summer workshop, but if it desires to do so, it may send two. Participation in the entire project will begin with representation in the workshop. A workshopper may be a teacher or an administrative officer, and he/she may be connected with any of the instructional departments. Also important are potential qualities of leadership, communication, and vital interest in teacher education and its relation to the total college program. It is important that the institutional representative to the workshop be chosen early so that he/she can make proper preparation for attending the workshop and so that the college can plan for the absence from the campus while in attendance.

Some participating colleges have established a Local North Central Association Project Committee which arranges for the coordinator's visit, provides for the distribution of materials, acts as a general discussion-forum group to keep the faculty intelligent and sympathetic about its teacher education undertaking, and keeps the project as a whole informed of the college's activities and progress through the coordinator.

Participation in the program requires a contribution of \$800.00 per year from each member college. This participation fee is used to finance expenses of the workshop, and *does include* registration expenses for one institutional representative to the *Teacher Education Workshop*. This amount does *not* cover the living expenses or transportation for those attending the summer workshop. It is expected that each college will establish local policies regarding such expenses. Staff costs for the workshops are assumed by the Cooperating Host University. The fee of \$800.00 is payable on or before July 15, preceding the academic year to which it applies. Should an institution choose not to use the coordinator visit or alternative, the fee is \$500.00. This fee structure applies to all participating institutions.

Publications

The publication of a report on significant developments of the workshop program is one basic goal of the project. Special emphasis is given to each of the various workshop activities together with specific illustrations of workshopper projects. These reports of the summer workshops are regular publications of the Teacher Education Project and are distributed to member institutions. Titles of the most recent publications are:

- 1970-71 Human Relations in Teacher Education
- 1971-72 Innovations in Human Relations in Teacher Education
- 1972-73 Performance-Based Teacher Education

- 1973-74 PBTE: Selective Retention
- 1974-75 Leadership in Teacher Education: The Dependent Variable for Change
- 1975-76 Continued Professional Development of Practicing Teachers: What Roles for Institutions of Higher Education?
- 1976-77 Evaluation in Teacher Education
- 1977-78 Accountability in Teacher Education
- 1978-79 Undergraduate Education: The Preparation of Teachers
- 1979-80 The Full Range of Professional Laboratory Experiences for Educational Personnel: Imperatives for the Future
- Teacher Education Centers to Provide New Roles for Higher Education
- 1980-81 Multi-Cultural/Multi-Ethnic Education (Ball State)
- 1981-82 Multi-Cultural/Multi-Ethnic Education (Northern Arizona University)
- 1982-83 Leadership and Governance in Teacher Education
- 1983-84 Revitalizing Teacher Education in the Mid 80's

A Guide to the Coordinator's Visit

Introduction

Each institution participating in the Teacher Education Project may be visited once each project year by a member of the coordinator staff.* The visit continues for a day or two and is planned jointly by the coordinator and the host institution. Whether the visit turns out to be a red-letter day or just another event in the affairs of the college depends primarily upon the care and skill with which plans are made and carried out.

Functions of the Coordinator

1. *The Coordinator is NOT a "Jack-Of-All-Trades"*. Throughout the process of making plans for the visit it is important to keep in mind the primary functions of the coordinator and of his/her visit. The coordinator comes from a busy life as a full-time college

* Beginning with the 1983-84 project year, the Coordinator Visits will be conducted on a bi-annual basis.

worker; activities as a coordinator are taken on in addition to regular duties. Therefore, the coordinator does not come to the local campus as an omniscient expert who is ready to provide the answers to any and all educational problems that may arise, and could not possibly be a specialist in all fields. The Committee Project would soon come to grief if the participating colleges were to use the coordinator to solve their own problems for them. The project not only does not pretend to offer such expert services; it recognizes the inevitable failure that would result from proceeding on such a basis.

2. *Sharing and Cooperation as the Basis for the Coordinator's Work.* The function of the coordinator is rather that of stimulating and assisting the host institution to plan and to execute teacher education studies and program development, especially by sharing with them the experiences of other institutions and by providing for interchange through direct contacts between two or more participating colleges. The fundamental basis of the entire project is that of sharing and cooperation; experience has shown that college faculties can be stimulated to increased interest and to more fruitful progress in the study of a great variety of problems by this means. The coordinator's visit is one of the important links in the chain, used to foster the inspiration and assistance that can come from such interchange and cooperative endeavor.

3. *Summary of the Coordinator's Function.* The coordinator then comes as a collaborator and as an aid. Special strengths of each coordinator generally lie in a knowledge of the activities in other colleges participating in the project, and in the ability to use techniques of group leadership in encouraging and assisting the host institution. Since the coordinators are outsiders with a background of visits to numerous colleges, they may be able to see the local situation, its needs and activities, in a fairly broad perspective and thus be able to point up some of its significant elements and inter-relationships. The coordinator's visit, therefore, should be planned with a view to reaping the maximum values through the functions which he/she is expected to perform.

The coordinator is NOT an evaluator for accreditation!

Dates for the Coordinator's Visit

1. *Time of Year for the Visit.* The particular dates for the visit by the coordinator to the college campus should be worked out jointly between the coordinator and the individual designated by the president of the host institution. Many colleges have found that the coordinator can be most helpful early in the academic year by assisting in planning a program and getting it underway. This is very likely to be a sound choice, although some colleges prefer to have the visit come relatively late in the year so that they will have achieved certain progress or results which can be demonstrated to the

coordinator and presented for his/her examination.

2. *Two or Three Colleges Usually Included in One Trip.* Whenever possible the coordinator attempts to arrange to visit two or three colleges on the same trip. This is done not only to conserve time and energy and to reduce the extent of absence from his/her full-time position, but also to assure the most economical use of Teacher Education Project funds. The annual fee paid by the participating colleges would be all together inadequate if such combination visits were not employed as often as possible.

3. *Cooperation in Arranging and Abiding by the Dates for a Combination Trip.* It becomes important then that the several colleges which the coordinator desires to visit on a single trip cooperate by agreeing to a combination of dates which will make this possible. One way for the coordinator to facilitate this, after learning of the general time of year that visits are desired, is to present to the colleges several alternative dates on which such a combined trip can be made. It is especially important after the college has agreed on a date for the visit that it abide by this agreement and not request a change. It would be unfair to ask the other colleges to change also, and the inevitable result is the expenditure of the time, energy, and funds necessary for the coordinator to make two trips where one would have sufficed.

Preparing for the Visitation

1. *Organizing for the Visit.* Initial contacts are made with the president of the institution regarding coordinator visitation schedules. The coordinator ordinarily will, at the same time, contact the person who represented the college at the previous Teacher Education Workshop regarding the visit. The coordinator may visit with the workshopper about the forthcoming visit; therefore, some plans will already have been proposed by the two in consultation with each other.

If there is a local Teacher Education Workshop Committee (in some instances consisting of former workshopppers) it may take the responsibility for planning the visit. If such a group does not exist, the person making arrangements will need to seek counsel where he/she can find it and will always make sure that appropriate administrative officials are consulted and that final plans are supported by them.

2. *Providing Advanced Information to the Coordinator.* The coordinator would appreciate receiving copies of published materials that describe the purpose, structure, and program of each college to be visited. This should include the brochures, a faculty handbook, if one is available, etc. Recent special reports of study group and research projects would also be of interest.

If the college is engaged in any special activities growing out of the cooperative project, reports of these would be of particular interest to the coordinator. The coordinator should have a copy of the planned schedule of activities well before his/her arrival.

Preparing the Faculty for the Visits

The person responsible for making arrangements for the visit should make certain that appropriate faculty know about and understand the role of the coordinator. The detailed program prepared for this event should be publicized in advance. In this connection, special emphasis should be given to the function of the coordinator and what is or is not expected of him/her. This will not only avoid disillusionment on the part of faculty members who otherwise might erroneously expect the coordinator to "dish out all the answers" and pass judgement on local matters, but it will also pave the way for the host institution to profit in maximum measure from the visit.

Planning the Program for the Coordinator's Visit

1. *Planning in Terms of Local Needs.* If the college is to receive maximum benefit from the coordinator's visit, careful plans should be made for it. In general, these plans should rest not on what the coordinator wants, but on what the college would like to have the coordinator do in view of the function which he/she may be expected to serve. Suggestions from the coordinator, however, should be sought. Detailed information of the program and the schedule of meetings which are finally developed should be completed well in advance of the visit.

2. *Length of the Visit.* The common practice is for the coordinator's visit to continue for a day or a day-and-a-half, although in special cases it may occupy two full days. The hours of arrival and departure of the coordinator should be ascertained in advance and plans should be made for utilizing all of the time while on the host campus to greatest advantage. This could include the evening of arrival if sufficient time is available.

3. *The Coordinator's Relationship to the Faculty, the Student Body, and the Study Committees.* The main purposes of the coordinator during the visit are to stimulate and to aid faculty and administrative committees which are engaged in institutional studies and program development. Except, however, for informing students or staff more fully of the purposes and values of the cooperative project, or discussing a problem which is of general and active concern for them, formal speeches are at best extra-curricular activities. The core of the plans made for the coordinator's visit should consist of meetings with committees that are studying institutional problems in general and teacher education problems specifically.

4. *Preparing for Committee Meetings with the Coordinator.* Careful plans should be made for each committee meeting. The coordinator should be quickly oriented and brought up to date on the most recent developments. A progress report prepared in advance, summarizing the work of the committee to date, defining problems and issues, outlining basic evidence, and listing questions still to be considered will be very helpful, along with an agenda for the meeting. Each committee member and the coordinator should be provided with a copy of such materials. The group should proceed as expeditiously as possible to a consideration of the topics and problems which have been prepared in advance for that purpose and listed in the agenda. The coordinator will be a member of the group, participating in the discussion and answering questions presented, but in general, should not be expected to make a formal speech.

5. *Additional Appropriate Activities:*

- a. Coordinator meetings with student groups;
- b. Coordinator meetings with administrative officers; These should provide an opportunity for mutual exchange of information and suggestions, and especially to give the administrators an opportunity to tell the coordinator exactly what they think of the project and how it can be improved. These meetings should, therefore, be held in private.
- c. Coordinator meetings with individual faculty members;
- d. Helping the coordinator to help other colleges; That feature of the college which may have special significance or interest to other institutions should be explained and, when possible, demonstrated. The coordinator should be given opportunities to observe them so that full information can be shared on visits to other colleges. Similarly, if there are any materials of special value that the college has recently produced, the coordinator should be provided with copies of them so that the information may be shared with other institutions.

6. *Planning the Visit to Assure the Greatest Values.* The foregoing discussion was designed to suggest some of the ingredients which might go into a good program for the coordinator's visit. No college is expected to include all of these suggestions for any one such event; in fact, the attempt to do so would probably require several days rather than only one or two. The particular activities included in the program for the visit should be chosen in the light of the needs of the local situation and the strengths of the coordinator. These suggestions are intended as an aid in making the coordinator's services most

fruitful to the college, not to dictate the program or to make the job easier. The coordinator would rather be worked hard during his stay and be of maximum help, than to have too little to do and not be of the greatest service.

Care, Feeding, and Housing of Coordinators

1. *Entertainment is Not Expected.* The chief reason for this final section is to make clear the fact that the college is not expected to entertain the coordinator during the visit. Each coordinator is reimbursed from the Committee's funds for all expenses.

2. *Use of Luncheon and Dinner Hours.* It may be remembered when making plans for meal times that the coordinator is on the campus primarily for educational purposes. Thus, the luncheon and dinner hours could appropriately be used for meetings in a convenient place with formal and/or informal groups or committees (if desired by the host institution).

3. *Lodging for the Coordinator.* Since the campus visits are strenuous experiences for coordinators and since they desire to do their best while on the campus, most coordinators prefer to stay at a local motel if one is available, or in a college guest room, rather than being invited to a private home.

PARTICIPATING INSTITUTIONS 1982-1983

	<u>Workshopper</u>	<u>President/Chancellor</u>
ANDERSON COLLEGE Anderson, Indiana	Darlene Miller	Robert Nicholson
ARKANSAS STATE UNIVERSITY Jonesboro, Arkansas	William Chance	Ray Thornton
BALL STATE UNIVERSITY Muncie, Indiana	Tom Mertens Dennis Redburn	Robert Bell
CHADRON STATE COLLEGE Chadron, Nebraska	Tom Detwiler	Edwin Nelson
GEORGE MASON UNIVERSITY Fairfax, Virginia	Jack Levy	George Johnson
IOWA WESLEYAN COLLEGE Mount Pleasant, Iowa	Vincent Mahoney	Louis Haselmayer
MONTANA STATE UNIVERSITY Bozeman, Montana	Jim Gage Henry Worrest	William Tietz

	<u>Workshopper</u>	<u>President/Chancellor</u>
NORTH CAROLINA UNIVERSITY AT GREENSBORO Greensboro, North Carolina	Shirley Haworth	William Moran
NORTHERN ARIZONA UNIVERSITY Flagstaff, Arizona	Lou Pollock	Eugene Hughes
OKLAHOMA BAPTIST UNIVERSITY Shawnee, Oklahoma	Jimmie Russell	Bob R. Agee
SAN DIEGO STATE UNIVERSITY San Diego, California	John McLevie	Thomas Day
THE SCHOOL OF THE OZARKS Point Lookout, Missouri	Ruth Anderson Juanita Kirk	Stephen Jennings
WEST LIBERTY STATE COLLEGE West Liberty, West Virginia	Maryann Ehle Gray Williamson	James Chapman





Complete File

The only complete file of books compiled from the workshops on teacher education, sponsored by the North Central Accrediting Association Teacher Education Project, was donated by Dr. F. Clark Elkins (right), coordinator for University Relations at Northern Arizona University, to Don Jones, who accepted the books as chairman of the Teacher Education Project. Elkins and Jones glance through the book from the first workshop at the University of Minnesota in 1948. Elkins,

who was co-director of the workshop at the University of Minnesota, had the only complete set of books. The present day workshops are co-sponsored by the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, NAU and Ball State University, where Jones also serves as chairman of the Department of Secondary Higher Education and Foundations and director of Secondary Teacher Education Programs.

(NAU Photo)

A SPECIAL GIFT



INSTITUTIONAL REPRESENTATIVES



THE NORTH CENTRAL TEACHER EDUCATION PROJECT COMMITTEE
Huddleston, Chapman, Jones, Deselms, Elkins, and Richmand (not present)

PART TWO
GROUP REPORTS
CHAPTER III

I. Establishing Criteria Of Excellence For Quality Control
In Teacher Education

Ruth Anderson
Tom Detwiler
Juanita Kirk
Vincent Mahoney

CHAPTER IV

II. Strengthening The Professional Curriculum

Henry Worrest
Jimmie Russell
Jack Levy
Bill Chance
Tom Mertens

CHAPTER V

III. A New Imperative: Professional and Personal Growth
Opportunities For Teacher Education Faculty

John McLevie
Shirley Haworth
Darlene Miller
Jim Gage

CHAPTER VI

IV. Through The Glass Darkly: From Reactivity To Proactivity
In Teacher Education

Maryann Ehle
Dennis Redburn
Gray Williamson
Louis Pollock

CHAPTER II
THE 36th ANNUAL WORKSHOP
Summer, 1983

Purposes of the Workshop

The summer workshop is one of the basic activities of the cooperative project and is designed to serve the institutions and their individual representatives. Purposes are as follows:

1. to provide member institutions specialized information on timely topics developed and disseminated by workshop participants;
2. to enhance the professional knowledge and acquaintances of participants;
3. to develop contributions to the State of the Art in Teacher Education.

Sponsorship

The 1983 workshop was made possible with the help of Northern Arizona University, the North Central Association, and the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education. Each member institution contributed to this project through a general fee of which a part was given to the summer workshop. In addition, the institution or the workshop participant covered living and other incidental expenses. Although the workshop could not exist without member and participant support, the host institution bore a sizeable portion of the costs. Northern Arizona University provided a portion of the costs and through its Education Department provided facilities, equipment and personnel. Various departments contributed speakers; the library contributed personnel services and complete use of facilities; and many other individuals and organizations helped.

Workshop Personnel, 1983

Participants

- RUTH ANDERSON, Chair, Department of Education, The School of the Ozarks, Point Lookout, Missouri 65726
- WILLIAM CHANCE, Chair, Elementary Education, Arkansas State University, State University, Arkansas 72467
- THOMAS DETWILER, Chair, Education and Psychology, Chadron State College, Chadron, Nebraska 69337
- MARYANN J. EHLE, Professor Education and Reading, West Liberty State College, West Liberty, West Virginia 26074
- JIM GAGE, Chair, Elementary Education, Montana State University, Bozeman, Montana 59715
- SHIRLEY HAWORTH, Coordinator Teacher Education, North Carolina University, Greensboro, Greensboro, North Carolina 27412
- JUANITA KIRK, Professor of English, The School of the Ozarks, Point Lookout, Missouri 65726
- JACK LEVY, Chair, Department of Education, George Mason University, Fairfax, Virginia 22030
- VINCENT MAHONEY, Chair, Teacher Education, Iowa Wesleyan College, Mount Pleasant, Iowa 52641
- JOHN MC LEVIE, Chair, Secondary Education, San Diego State University, San Diego, California 92115
- TOM MERTENS, Professor of Biology, Ball State University, Muncie, Indiana 47306
- DARLENE MILLER, Dean, School of Social and Professional Studies, Anderson College, Anderson, Indiana 46011
- LOU POLLOCK, Doctoral Fellow, Northern Arizona University, Flagstaff, Arizona 86011
- DENNIS REDBURN, Coordinator of Student Teaching, Ball State University, Muncie, Indiana 47306
- JIMMIE RUSSELL, Instructor in Education, Oklahoma Baptist University, Shawnee, Oklahoma 74801
- GRAY WILLIAMSON, Associate Professor English, West Liberty State College, West Liberty, West Virginia 26074
- HENRY WORREST, Professor of Education, Montana State University, Bozeman, Montana 59717

Workshop Staff

DONALD W. JONES, Director, Secondary Teacher Education, Ball State University, Muncie, Indiana 47306 and Chairman, North Central Association Teacher Education Project

JIMMY DAVIS, Associate Dean, College of Education, Northern Arizona University 86011 Co-Director of the 1983 Workshop

JEAN REDBURN, Secretary to the Director, Secondary Teacher Education, Ball State University, Muncie, Indiana 47306 Workshop Secretary

Visiting Lecturers and Consultants

TOM CAREY, Arizona Association of School Administrators, "Quality Control: The Ultimate Professional Responsibility".

JOSEPH COX, Academic Vice President, Northern Arizona University, "Retrenchment, What Does it Really Mean?".

PHILIP FITCH, Chair, Department of Education, Point Loma College, San Diego, California, "Building a Positive Image: A Time for Change".

ARNOLD GALLEGOS, Dean, College of Education, Northern Arizona University, "Educational Technology: Boon or Bust".

DONNA GOLLNICK, Staff Associate, American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, "Your Association - 1984 and Beyond".

MICHAEL KELLY, State Department of Education, "Selective Admission: Who and How".

JOHN VAUGHN, Executive Director, Commission on Schools, North Central Association, "Public Education: A Radical Alternative".

CAROLYN WARNER, Arizona School Superintendent of Public Instruction, "Quality Control: Who is Responsible and How do They Achieve the Goal?"

DAVID WHORTON, Assistant Vice-President for Academic Affairs, Curriculum and Planning, Northern Arizona University, "Faculty Development: Reviewing the Basics with Creativity".

Workshop Organization

General Sessions

Organization of the 1983 workshop encouraged all workshop participants to attend the full three weeks. As shown in the Workshop Calendar which follows, there were several general sessions each week. Usually each workshop day opened with a brief assembly for the purpose of making announcements and reports of concern to the entire group. Informal group gatherings occurred at coffee breaks in the midmorning and at meals. One of the general sessions during the final week was devoted to reports from the various working groups. These reports provided each working seminar a means of integrating and evaluating its work, gave each participant an account of the achievements and problems of other work groups, and provided a body of research and opinion in various aspects of teacher education to be added to the similar contributions of past workshops.

Workshop Schedule for the First Week

Sunday, July 17

2:00 - 4:00 p.m.	Dormitory check-in
5:00 p.m.	Participant reception - dormitory terrace

Monday, July 18

9:30 a.m.	Introduction of all participants Discussion of 1982 workshop and goals for 1983
10:30 a.m.	Registration and I.D. pictures Lunch
1:00 p.m.	Organization of workshop committees a. resource committee b. editorial committee c. social committee d. other committees
3:00 p.m.	Tour of campus
6:00 p.m.	Group dinner (Dutch treat)

Tuesday, July 19

9:00 a.m.	Greetings from the president's office Introduction of speaker by Dr. Joe Ryan Guest speaker - Dr. Arnold Gallegos, Dean College of Education, NAU, Topic: "Educational Technology: Boon or Bust"
10:30 a.m.	General discussion with Dr. Gallegos Lunch
1:00 p.m.	Selection of major themes to be researched Selection of small groups

Wednesday, July 20

9:00 a.m. Introduction of guest speaker by Jim Davis
 Guest speaker - Dr. Philip Fitch
 Topic: "Building a Positive Image: A Time for Change"

10:30 a.m. General discussion with Dr. Fitch
 Lunch

1:00 p.m. Meeting of small groups

3:00 p.m. Job-alike interviews

Thursday, July 21

9:00 a.m. Introduction of guest speaker by Dr. Robert Ciscell
 Guest speaker - Dr. John Vaughn
 Topic: "Public Education: A Radical Alternative"

10:30 a.m. General discussion with Dr. Vaughn
 Lunch

1:00 p.m. Meeting of small groups

Friday, July 22

9:00 a.m. "Meet My Institution"
 Participants discuss their institutions
 Lunch

1:00 p.m. Trip to Grand Canyon - sunset dinner on canyon rim (Dutch treat)

Saturday, July 23
 Sunday, July 24

Free Time - Individual sightseeing and recreation

Monday, July 25

9:00 a.m. Panel: NCA Teacher Education Project Committee

10:30 a.m. General and small group discussion with panel members
 Lunch

1:00 p.m. Small group meeting

6:00 p.m. Social

Tuesday, July 26

9:00 a.m. Introduction of speaker by Dr. Arnold Gallegos
 Guest speaker - Dr. Joseph Cox
 Topic: "Retrenchment, What Does it Really Mean?"

10:30 a.m. General discussion with Dr. Cox
 Lunch

1:00 p.m. "Meet My Institution"
 Round-table discussion on individual problems and solutions

3:00 p.m. Meeting of small groups

Wednesday, July 27

9:00 a.m. Introduction of speaker by Richard Packard
Guest speaker - Mrs. Carolyn Warner
Topic: "Quality Control: Who is Responsible and how do they Achieve the Goal?"

10:30 a.m. General discussion with Mrs. Warner
Lunch

1:00 p.m. Round-table discussion on individual
State Departments of Education involvement in university curriculum

2:30 p.m. Meeting of small groups

Thursday, July 28

9:00 a.m. Speaker - Dr. David Whorton
Topic: "Faculty Development: Reviewing the Basics with Creativity"

10:30 a.m. General discussion with Dr. Whorton
Lunch

1:00 p.m. Small group meetings

Friday, July 29

9:00 a.m. Introduction of speaker by Dr. Clark Elkins
Guest speaker - Dr. Donna Gollnick
Topic: "Your Association - 1984 and Beyond"

10:30 a.m. General discussion with Dr. Gollnick
Lunch

1:30 p.m. Catch-up time and trip to Oak Creek Canyon

Saturday, July 30
Sunday, July 31

Free Time - Individual sightseeing and recreation

Monday, August 1

9:00 a.m. Work-time
Lunch

1:00 p.m. Group, individual work

Tuesday, August 2

9:00 a.m. Work sessions
Lunch

1:00 p.m. Work session

3:00 p.m. Guest speaker - Dr. Michael Kelly
Topic: "Selective Admission: Who and How"
General discussion with Dr. Kelly

Wednesday, August 3

9:00 a.m. Guest speaker - Dr. Tom Carey
Topic: "Quality Control: The Ultimate Professional Responsibility"
10:30 a.m. General discussion with Dr. Carey
Lunch
1:00 p.m. General work session

Thursday, August 4

10:00 a.m. Groups present research and deliberations
Lunch
1:30 p.m. Continuation of morning session
6:00 p.m. Closing dinner

Friday, August 5

9:00 a.m. Conclusion of presentations
Wind-up

Workshop Theme Groups

There were four theme subgroups identified by the workshop participants as dimensions of the overall workshop theme. Each workshopper worked within one of these groups studying and reporting on the topic of the theme subgroup. Listed below are the subgroups and the names of those who worked on them.

GROUP I

Establishing Criteria

Ruth Anderson
Tom Detwiler
Juanita Kirk
Vincent Mahoney

GROUP II

Strengthening Curriculum

Bill Chance
Jack Levy
Tom Mertens
Jimmie Russell
Henry Worrest

GROUP III

A New Imperative

Jim Gage
 Shirley Haworth
 John McLevie
 Darlene Miller

GROUP IV

Maryann Ehle
 Lou Pollock
 Dennis Redburn
 Gray Williamson

Procedural Committees

Three committees were organized to handle routine work necessary for the operation of an effective workshop.

1. The Resource Committee was in charge of setting up procedures for the utilization of and the accounting for the books and materials used in the workshop. This committee also explored and reported to the total group procedures for using the university libraries. The scheduling of special reports by fellow workshopers was handled by the Resource Committee, as well as making arrangements for audio-visual equipment.

Bill Chance
 Vince Mahoney
 Darlene Miller

Dennis Redburn
 Henry Worrest

2. The Editorial Committee was asked to accept major responsibility for providing guidance to the total workshop in the planning and preparation of written reports. Editorial services were arranged, and a common access to secretarial assistance was maintained.

Ruth Anderson
 Shirley Haworth
 Juanita Kirk

John McLevie
 Jimmie Russell
 Gray Williamson

3. The Social Committee was active throughout the entire three-week period. A wide variety of activities was arranged, some of which were designed for all, while others met the needs of small groups. Since the membership of the group remained constant every week, the Social Committee became a committee of the whole. However, leadership and direction were provided by the following:

Tom Detwiler
 Maryann Ehle
 Jim Gage

Jack Levy
 Tom Mertens
 Lou Pollock

Social Activities

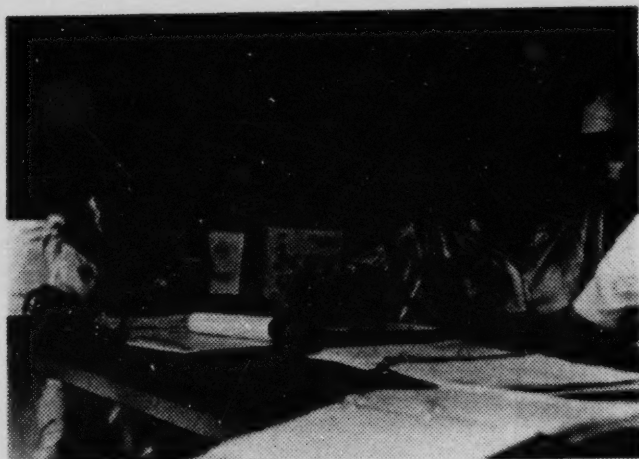
In addition to the many official social functions which had been planned in advance and are reported above, residential workshop living provides many, many opportunities for formal and informal socialization.

One of the activities which was planned on an informal basis was a trip to the Hopi Reservation to observe Kachina dances. This activity proved to be a hallmark for some workshopers. Similarly, workshopers found the environment of the Navajo communities a worthwhile experience.

Another activity which was of considerable interest and quite different was a visit to the Lowell Observatory.

Nearly every eating establishment in the city of Flagstaff was visited by one or more of the North Central Association workshopers. One impromptu highlight of the workshop experience was attendance at Black Bart's Dinner Theatre.

An outstanding opportunity for relaxation at a critical point in the progress of the workshop was provided by former workshopper and present committee member, Dr. Clark Elkins, who with his wife, Norma, hosted a wine and cheese social function in their home. This activity was one of the highlights of the NCA 1983 Summer Workshop.





GROUP I

Vince Mahoney

Ruth Anderson

Juanita Kirk

Tom Detwiler

CHAPTER III
ESTABLISHING CRITERIA OF EXCELLENCE FOR QUALITY CONTROL
IN TEACHER EDUCATION

Ruth Anderson
Tom Detwiler
Juanita Kirk
Vince Mahoney

Introduction:

Increasing criticism of education, particularly of elementary and secondary schooling, has created a climate conducive to change in all segments of education, including teacher education. The time is right for program review with improvements in quality control at strategic checkpoints throughout the teacher preparation program. The purpose of this report is to identify critical checkpoints in professional growth programs for teachers at which strategies for quality control can be implemented or improved and to suggest criteria for consideration at the various checkpoints.

The authors support the view that quality control criteria and assessment procedures should begin with early recruitment of the best possible candidates for the teaching profession and that critical checkpoints can be identified throughout the professional career of the individual from preservice education through the period of tenured employment. The basic thrust of this paper will focus on preservice preparation during which institutions of higher learning are most directly responsible. However, some suggestions will be presented which relate to quality

control during the professional career of the teacher since the authors support the view that teacher education must continue throughout the professional career.

The authors also propose extension of the model (Table I) of the American Association of Colleges of Teacher Education (AACTE) (April, 1983) to include recruitment prior to the admissions checkpoint and periodic assessment beyond the first year of practice.

TABLE I
AACTE ASSESSMENT MODEL*

When	Persons Involved	What Is Assessed	Evidence Considered	Options if Decision Negative
Admission to Teacher education	Teacher educators Liberal Arts professors School-based professionals	Basic skills —oral communication —written communication —mathematics Academic achievement Relevant experiences	Test scores —standardized —locally developed Writing samples Grades in high school and college	Strengthen preparation through additional course-work and projects with children/youth Delayed re-application Admission on probation
Each subsequent enrollment	Adviser	Progress toward program goals	Anecdotes from faculty and school-based professionals Rating scales Grades	Probationary enrollment Individual remedial programs
Admission to student teaching	Teacher educators School-based professionals	Competence to teach under supervision	Rating scales Anecdotes Recommendations from teacher educators and school-based professionals Grades	Delayed re-application Additional field placements Prescribed activities related to specific competencies
Graduation	Teacher educators School-based professionals	Profile of safe to practice characteristics —general education —teaching field knowledge —professional knowledge —skills of practice	Test scores —standardized —locally constructed Grade point average Grades in relevant courses Assessment of skills in student teaching Audio and video tapes	Additional student teaching Additional work to develop insufficient competencies
First year of practice	Teacher colleagues Teacher educators Local administrators	Professional skills and attitudes Subject matter knowledge	Anecdotes Rating scales Letters of recommendation	Observe master teachers Repeat supervised teaching Additional work on insufficient competencies

*AACTE, Educating a Profession: Competency Assessment, 1983 (Permission granted to reproduce.)

The remainder of this chapter is divided into seven major sections dealing with quality control. In the first section, recruiting qualified applicants for the profession is examined, followed by the second section on selective admissions criteria. Continued assessment programs are presented in the third section, while student teaching quality indicators are identified in the fourth section. The fifth and sixth sections treat initial certification programs and the probationary period, respectively.

The seventh and final section of the chapter looks at life-long professional growth as a criterion of excellence.

Recruiting Applicants

A review of current literature and research in the area of identifying outstanding candidates for the teaching profession reveals a significant sparsity of data dealing with recruiting as a quality checkpoint. While many authors have examined admission criteria and standards quite carefully and even in some depth, the starting point of such research is generally the teacher education program itself. These studies seem to make the assumption that the students have already made the decision to pursue teaching as a career when they arrive on the college campus.

Unfortunately, in all these studies only brief references are made to the need for the profession to seek better qualified candidates prior to admission. For example, Watts (1980, p. 120) stated, "Even a superb preparatory program cannot make a competent teacher out of an inadequate candidate". Weller (1981, p. 3) stressed that if preservice teacher education programs are not to become extinct, then teacher educators "need to attract a higher caliber of students...."

Again, most studies that address entry-level programs in teacher education spend little time examining the recruitment aspect, although virtually all allude to the need. Studies that do look at recruiting factors usually cite low salary as the major reason for the profession's inability to attract quality candidates (Simon, 1981, p.4). The logical response to this problem is simply to say that school districts need to increase their budget to support higher salaries. Given the state of the economy, this NCA Workshop Committee contends that teacher salaries will not rise substantially over the next few years. Therefore, high salaries as a major recruiting strategy will not be a significant factor, nor will they be for several years.

A second factor frequently cited in the literature which is said will attract quality candidates is the extended program (Extended Programs, 1981, p. 43) because of its intellectual challenge. The committee, however, discovered little evidence to suggest the extended program will be adopted by many institutions in the foreseeable future.

In their comprehensive nation-wide survey of criteria for admitting students to teacher education programs, authors Lamen and Reeves (1982, p. 42) discovered that teacher preparation institutions were "not doing much to recruit desirable candidates for entry into teacher education." In fact, Lamen and Reeves found that only forty-four percent of the institutions surveyed had an active recruitment program, and even fewer than the forty-four percent of the institutions surveyed would

rate their recruitment success "good" or "excellent" (Ibid, p. 43). Lamen and Reeves' findings were substantiated in 1983 by a survey of thirteen institutions in which it was observed that only thirty-eight percent of the institutions would characterize their present program of teacher recruitment as active (Recruiting Survey).

Because an obvious relationship exists between the quality of the teacher education program and the quality of the students entering the program, and because society rightfully expects that the profession will seek the most qualified applicants, educators must begin to consider recruitment as a critical checkpoint and assign it a high priority. This aspect takes on even more importance when viewed in light of the insignificant amount of recruitment activity currently being conducted in teacher training institutions throughout the United States.

As a critical checkpoint in the entire process, recruiting quality students for the profession must be considered as part of the role and mission of the entire institution, not the teacher education unit alone. A statement of recruitment philosophy needs to be formulated, objectives identified, and strategies developed. Institutions must analyze their present methods of recruiting applicants and determine to what extent their programs are attracting quality students. Cooperative and joint efforts between the various departments on campus will help in the identification of promising students, as will communication with public school personnel.

A number of specific strategies to recruit quality applicants are identified and explained in some detail in this individual report. The committee suggests that institutions take the necessary steps to plan, develop, and implement a comprehensive program of recruiting outstanding applicants. A carefully devised and implemented recruitment program will help considerably in the profession's quest for excellence.

Admission To Teacher Education

Standards and practices vary widely for admission to teacher education programs, but a vast majority of institutions have some type of formalized admissions program in place (Uno, 1981; Simmons, et al, 1982; Amodeo and Martin, 1982; and Kaple and Mour, 1982). A frequent criticism of admissions practices is that many institutions do not take the process seriously and fail to establish and use criteria which would help identify potential strengths and weaknesses in candidates (Lamen and Reeves, 1982, p. 43).

Most institutions require the applicant to teacher education to file a formal application for admission. Institutions use varying combinations of screening procedures including recom-

recommendations of faculty members, personal interviews, written statements of commitment to teacher education, physical examinations, speech and/or hearing tests, written tests in English and mathematics, personality inventories, and aptitude or achievement tests. Nearly all institutions appear to use an established grade point average for screening purposes.

Results of a survey of practices in thirteen institutions that participated in the North Central Association Teacher Education Project Workshop of 1983 indicate some of the diversity of admissions procedures and standards to be found in teacher education programs (Table I). With the exception of Montana State University, which has an open admissions policy to teacher education programs, all reported a GPA requirement of at least 2.0 or above on a 4.0 scale; most reported use of recommendations from advisors and other faculty members; and several reported use of interviews, written statement from the applicant, and/or successful completion of specified courses. Only five reported use of aptitude, achievement or proficiency examinations at time of admission, although some are planning to do so.

The NCA Workshop Committee recognizes the problems inherent in efforts to establish criteria for admission to teacher education which will satisfactorily serve the needs of the profession in screening out at an early point those unlikely to be successful in the profession. However, the committee suggests that it is essential that each institution with a teacher education program develop practices and procedures which are carefully devised and consistently followed to achieve this goal. It is preferable that only those who are likely to complete the program successfully and enter the teaching profession be encouraged to enter the teacher education program due to the heavy commitment of time and money which must be expended to complete the program.

Applicants who may be borderline should receive early advisement of deficiencies and should be informed as to how deficiencies are to be removed. Established criteria should be relevant and standards should be met by all interested applicants. If any exceptions are made, they should be clearly explained in the policy statements and should in no instance adversely affect the quality of the program.

The committee suggests that criteria be established in the following areas: academic/intellectual, physical, and social/emotional. More specifically, the committee suggests: that rank in class (rather than GPA) be used as one measure of academic/intellectual development; that diagnostic tests be administered in the basic skills areas of mathematics and oral and written communications to determine remediation needs; that health problems be identified through physical examination and records; and that social/emotional development be ascertained through references who have known the individual

over a period of some time. School records should be used to help determine extracurricular activities during secondary school. Current involvement in college activities should be noted as well.

Carefully formulated admissions procedures which are well-publicized and consistently followed can do much to "turn around" the image of any teacher education program and can enhance the self image of the prospective teacher who enters the program.

Continuous Progress

After the student passes the critical checkpoint of admission to the teacher education program, what logical checkpoints should there be for the student as he/she progresses through the program? What should teacher education faculty members be doing to check quality? How should faculty members carry out the identified tasks of quality control?

Chronological Points

Obviously two chronological points in the program for student evaluation are the early experiences program(s) and during the methods classes. Students should be carefully evaluated and screened from the program in a continuous process by faculty and classroom teachers involved in the early experiences and during methods courses. The various means are discussed in detail below and factors influencing teacher effectiveness are delineated.

Types of General Factors

Factors influencing quality control throughout the program divide into two broad types: Quantitative and Qualitative factors (the What and the How of Continuous Progress Checkpoints). Data on both kinds of indicators are necessary if accreditation teams and in-house faculty are to judge accurately the quality control of a given teacher education program.

Quantitative indicators of quality control demonstrate what teacher education faculty members do to monitor teacher effectiveness development. The typical quantitative indicators of quality are economic data, faculty workload data, student achievement data, level of established standards, amount of program resources, and amount of time for student preparation.

Economic Data Relating To Quality

Limited research on teacher education programs at major state and land-grant universities indicates that these programs are generally underfinanced (Peseau and Orr, 1980, p. 100). Yet the public wants more education for less money! Formulas

used in thirty-eight states to allocate distribution of funds at state and land-grant universities show teacher education programs invariably have the lowest index for distribution at both the undergraduate and graduate levels. Teacher education programs tend to receive a smaller proportion of the dollars they produce in student credit hours than do other programs. Peseau and Orr (1980, p. 100) noted in nine universities that supplied complete financial data, four teacher education programs were underfinanced by forty percent or more. All nine teacher education programs were underfinanced between twelve percent and sixty-two percent.

In a 1977-78 study of forty-six teacher education programs in major state and land-grant universities Peseau and Orr (1980, p. 102) made the staggering finding that the average cost per academic year of instruction in teacher education was only \$927.00, while the average national per pupil expenditure in the United States public schools was \$1,400.00! Among the studied institutions annual cost per student was as low as \$478.00, half the cost per public school pupil! Yet, average cost per student in higher education was \$2,363.00. Where does that place education programs on higher education financial priority lists? At the very bottom of the economic support scale!

The committee feels that the American public needs to review its real economic priorities if they claim that education is of importance to them. Quality standards in teacher preparation demand some quantitative funding minimums below which teacher education programs should not be approved!

Faculty Workload

Faculty workload in teacher education programs is another critical factor in quality control. Workload consists of such things as number of course sections taught, total enrollments, number of contact hours with students, number of student advisees, student/faculty ratios, budget resources per faculty member, number of publications produced, number of in-service days provided, the value of contracts and grants raised, and number of college/university committees assigned for service. This listing indicates the complexity of the workload factor. The committee could find little or no research data which related to workload factors. There is a need to collect such data and publicize it widely to the American citizen. If we are serious about quality control in teacher education programs, then trends regarding the above aspects of workload must be documented. It is believed that considerable inequities in faculty workload exist among institutions, especially small, private, liberal arts institutions.

Productivity is another means to evaluate quality control in workload. Productivity factors include average class size, weighted semester credit hours (WSCH) produced per full-time

instructional faculty (FTIF), university budget resources per FTIF, the cost per weighted semester credit hour produced, the cost per undergraduate full-time equivalent student (FTES), and the program mix for some institutions (percent of weighted credit hours produced by undergraduate, masters, and post-masters levels). Peseau and Orr (1980, p. 101) studied twenty-nine institutions (mainly universities) on the above productivity factors.

There is a wide variation in average class size from 2.89 students to 25.34. The WSCH produced per FTIF ranged from 189 to 1,991 credits during a twelve-month period! The costs per weighted credit hour are the highest at low enrollment universities and lowest at high enrollment universities (Peseau and Orr, 1980, p. 101). The faculty productivity from one teacher education program to another cannot be adequately compared presently due to differences in program mix and due to widely varying budgetary support. Although precise comparisons are prohibited, generally it can be noted that teacher education programs with higher enrollments are less costly than smaller programs (Peseau and Orr, 1980, p. 102).

Peseau and Orr's study (1980, pp. 100-102) produced two major findings: (1) university officials who make decisions about funding allocations do not share the beliefs of teacher educators about the role and needs of teacher education programs; and (2) both funding and academic productivity vary substantially among teacher education programs. It appears teacher education programs do not have their mission and goals clearly specified and they are definitely not conveyed to the rest of the academic community. Also it is evident a better data base is needed before workload can be used as a quality control factor in teacher education programs.

Achievement Standards

The most common attempt at quality control in the teacher education program is the requirement that students maintain a specific grade point average (GPA). This required GPA ranges all the way from a 2.00 to a 3.00 in programs. Typically it centers around 2.15 to 2.25 (Carpenter, 1973). However, grade inflation of the past decade or more may invalidate GPA as an indicator of quality control. Gene Lyons (1980, p. 110) claimed that most teacher education achievement standards are even less rigorous than their entrance standards. He cited a recent study at the University of Houston that reported the secondary education department awarded A's to 76.5% of the students in its courses, 13.5% B's, 1.4% C's, and the rest were incompletes or withdrawals. No D or F grades were recorded for the semester.

The committee wonders whether this is typical or atypical of the grades issued in other teacher education departments. Comprehensive research data on the matter are very difficult

to locate and extract (if they exist). The use of student GPA as a major quality control during continuous progress in the teacher education program is questionable if it is the only criterion. The other factors discussed in this section must be included as well.

Program Resources

By this term, the committee means the equipment, materials, and curricular text series used in the teacher education program. Little research data exists to indicate the status of program resources for teacher education programs. Specific quantitative data on curriculum libraries are usually incorporated within regular library holdings and thus are difficult to assemble on a national basis.

Program resources as a quality indicator determine partially the up-to-date knowledge and skills background the preparatory student teacher will receive throughout the program. Few comprehensive studies of equipment status in teacher education programs exist. Since program resources are closely linked to economic or budgetary support, it is reasonable to conclude such resources are minimal in teacher education programs nationwide. The low average cost per teacher education candidate for instruction in the United States would presently prohibit improvement of program resources in most institutions. Program resources are a quality control indicator which need national attention in teacher education programs.

Time For Preparation

Many lay people in America today think that colleges of education have four years for the preparation of teachers. Actually the time available for professional preparation of a teacher is less than that of any other profession one may choose for comparison. Elizabeth Woellner (Smith and Street, 1980, p. 103) reported that twenty-two states accepted eighteen semester hours or less of professional studies in the preparation of secondary teachers. In the bicentennial volume published by the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, Robert Howsam, et al, (Smith and Street, 1980, p. 103), concluded that the professional education component made up only thirteen percent of the program for the preservice preparation of a secondary teacher and only slightly more for an elementary teacher nationwide (Smith and Street, 1980, p. 103). Smith and Street (1980, p. 104) examined the historical trends in the time of preparation for various professions, e.g. law, pharmacy, engineering from the early 1900's to the present. They reported increased time of preparation required in all these professions with increases ranging in terms of one, two, or three years rather than a few credit hours additional course work. Smith and Street's (1980, pp. 103-104) same study revealed that for example at the University of Florida between 1929 and 1979, the time of teacher preparation for the professional component in

the elementary program had been reduced by thirty-six percent and the secondary teacher program reduced by fourteen percent in the same period!

Comparison of time of teacher preparation in the professional component with even non-professional occupations suffers. The Florida Barber's Board requires 1,500 hours of barber schooling before a person may take the state examination (Smith and Street, 1980, p. 107). That is more hours of professional instruction than required to become a secondary teacher!

Reason would dictate that the complexity of teaching today would demand more time for preparation rather than less time. Thus the committee concludes that an increase in professional preparation time must precede and not follow the desired improved conditions in teaching practices across this nation. All secondary and junior high teachers must have a strong academic subject matter major coupled with increased time in professional component courses. All elementary teachers must have a strong academic background coupled with increased time in the professional component courses.

Quality control of student continuous progress through the teacher education program is strongly dependent upon the time of preparation allowed. This factor should be a cause for national concern. It demands immediate improvement!

Qualitative Factors

In this second section on quality indicators during continuous student progress through the teacher education program, two broad clusters of factors are discussed. These qualitative factors are more difficult to assess as quality indicators. They center on personal aspects of students, teachers, and faculty.

Teacher Competencies

Competency-based teacher education (CBTE) is a powerful theoretical construct that has not been adequately tested and evaluated by educational researchers to date. Theoretically, the objectives of any teacher education program can be operationally defined. Then the teacher candidate can be held accountable (i.e. required to demonstrate the specified teaching behaviors) to a standard before being allowed to start teaching. However, successful implementation of this powerful construct (CBTE) requires the solution of two difficult problems: (1) the development of an operational definition of specific teaching competencies; (2) the validation of attainment of the competencies. Nearly all the competence measures used in current CBTE programs depend on judgments by trained observers recorded on rating scales (Coker, Medley, and Soar, 1980, pp. 131-149). Unfortunately, there are no "objective" measures of specified competencies. Research can rarely be cited that presents evidence that the

educator judgments reflect the behaviors accurately. (Coker, Medley, Soar, 1980, p. 131). Ideally the educational research evidence should demonstrate a direct cause-and-effect relationship between mastery of the competence and effectiveness in the classroom. Coker, Medley and Soar (1980, p. 131) claimed that existing CBTE research shows only correlation between mastery of competence and teaching effectiveness and thus minimal proof of validity to the construct.

These researchers (1980, p. 132) even raised the question in the absence of validity evidence for most competence measures whether CBTE programs do more harm than good! They asked whether it is possible that CBTE programs may be training students to be "sycophants rather than skilled practitioners. Expert judges (teacher educators) are used to "validate" most sets of competencies prior to constructing and using rating scales for them.

A committee of teachers from the Carroll County School System, Georgia, together with teacher educators developed a list of competencies which they believed would enable a teacher to cope with most teaching problems in the classroom. The teachers and researchers claimed that a study of the research on teacher effectiveness was of only limited value (Rosenshine and Furst, 1973, pp. 122-183). The competencies developed by these project teachers used existing lists of competencies from the University of Georgia, the University of Houston, and the Florida catalog of Teacher Competencies. The competencies were as follows:

1. Gathers and uses information related to individual difficiencies
2. Organizes pupils, resources, and materials for effective instruction
3. Demonstrates ability to communicate effectively with students
4. Assists students in using a variety of relevant communication techniques
5. Assists students in dealing with their misconceptions or confusions, using relevant clues and techniques
6. Responds appropriately to coping behavior of students
7. Uses a variety of methods and materials to stimulate and promote pupil learning
8. Promotes self-awareness and positive self-concepts in students
9. Reacts with sensitivity to the needs and feelings of others

(Coker, Medley, and Soar, 1980, p. 132). Some of the above nine general teacher competencies were further subdivided into three or four subcompetencies for a total of twenty-five competencies.

The Carroll County project researchers decided to deal with the operational definitions of the above twenty-five competencies by using low-inference measures of the specified behaviours. Coker, Medley, and Soar (1980, p. 133) felt that rating scales or high-inference measures were not as dependable measures of teacher effectiveness. Four instruments were used and cross-correlated on an item by item basis with each of the above competencies. The instruments selected were the Spaulding Teacher Activity Recording Schedule (STARS) (Spaulding, 1970, San Jose State University), the Observation Schedule and Record; Form 5, Verbal (Oscar 5V) (Medley, 1973, University of Virginia), the Florida Climate and Control System (FLACCS) (Soar, Soar, and Ragosta, 1971, University of Florida), and the Teacher Practices Observation Record (TPOR) (Brown, 1968, the Experimental Mind in Education). Each of these low-inference instruments has been in use for over ten years and validated during development. The instruments provided a pool of several hundred items to describe aspects of teacher classroom behavior operationally.

Data were collected with all four instruments in one hundred classrooms over a two-year period by Coker, Medley, and Soar (1980, p. 134). Two major areas of student growth were assessed with standardized achievement tests and paper-and-pencil self-concept measures. These researchers (1980, p. 149) reported significant relationships between teacher behaviour and student achievement for six teacher behaviors; listening to students; respecting the pupil's right to speak; selecting goals and objectives appropriate for students; involving students in organizing and planning; giving clear, explicit directions; and maintaining self-control. Surprisingly, five teacher behaviours related negatively and thus decreased student achievement. These were using nonverbal communication skills; using praise and/or rewards; making contact with a pupil who is off task; pausing, eliciting, and responding to student questions, and giving pupils a voice in decision making (Coker, Medley, Soar, 1980, p. 149). Using feedback from pupils to modify teaching related negatively in the elementary grades and positively in the secondary grades. Relationships between competencies and gains in pupil self-concept were even less in agreement with the expectations of teacher educators (Coker, Medley, and Soar, 1980, p. 149).

This research study was reported in considerable detail to make the point that our common assumptions and beliefs as teacher educators about effective teaching and teacher competencies can be and are at times incorrect. The committee recommends greater reliance upon research-based data for selection of quality control factors in this highly judgmental area of teacher effectiveness, namely, teacher competencies.

Two additional, major research based efforts to assess teacher effectiveness should be mentioned as worthy of follow-up study for practical input to teacher education programs: the Arizona State Board of Education teacher education skills



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requirements and the Florida Beginning Teacher Program. The Arizona skill-based teacher education program mandated in February, 1983, will require each teacher training institution in Arizona to assure the State Board of Education that their teacher education programs meet the requirements of the teacher education skills list - sixty-three skills in six areas: classroom management; curriculum and instruction; assessment and evaluation; growing and learning theories, educational foundations; and organization, administration and other (Warner, 1983, Handout, NCA Workshop).

In the Beginning Teacher Program of Florida, researchers have assembled the useful research literature on teacher effectiveness by domains: Planning, Management of Student Conduct, Instructional Organization and Development, Presentation of Subject Matter, Communication: Verbal and Nonverbal, and Evaluation (State of Florida D.P.I., 1983). Further research has been organized on the conditions under which teaching takes place. This data is grouped under Frame Factors and Instruction Format domains. Work is under way to develop measurement instruments on the above domains.

Regarding quality control factors on teaching effectiveness, the NCA Committee concludes that there should be implementation of the thirteen quality indicators listed by the AACTE in the report, Competency Assessment in Teacher Education: Making it Work: (Denemark and Nelli, 1981, pp. 1-13). They are listed briefly here and may be reviewed in detail within the above publication. Quality Teaching Preparation Program:

1. Establish clear goals that reflect both reality and aspiration
2. Provide trainees with a broad repertoire of professional knowledge and skill
3. Are a continuum of initial preparation, inservice education, and continuing professional development
4. Admit only individuals who demonstrate potential for teaching success
5. Establish exit criteria that ensure a safe level of beginning practice
6. Reflect in design and content the growing knowledge base about teaching
7. Possess the resources necessary to support rigorous professional training
8. Develop relationships with agencies and groups whose understanding and support are essential
9. Assume special responsibility for the pedagogical component and recognize and support the importance of content knowledge as well
10. Link theory with practice to aid teachers to become professionals rather than technicians
11. Provide a pedagogical component that emphasizes generic teaching competencies - subject, age level, and population, specific knowledge and skills; and related clinical and field experiences

12. Afford sequential experiences that move toward more sophisticated uses and wider application of knowledge and skills
13. Provide for follow-up support and supervision of graduates to assist them in the difficult transition to full-time practice, and use data from such follow-up to modify instructional programs. (Denemark and Nelli, 1981, pp. 1-13)

Student Characteristics

A second major quality factor influencing the effectiveness of the teacher education program during the continuous progress phase is that of student characteristics. The previous parts of this report have discussed checkpoints for quality control on student characteristics within the recruitment and admission phases. Rigorous screening procedures maintained by faculty and cooperating classroom teachers must be maintained during the continuous progress phase.

What are the academic characteristics of students in teacher education programs? College Entrance Examination Board data show that in 1980-81 college-bound seniors expressing an "intention" to study education ranked 26th in combined SAT scores out of twenty-nine fields of study, eighty-one points below average. (National College-Bound Seniors, 1981). Weaver (1981) found that teacher education student scores (between 1972 and 1980) had not declined significantly relative to non-education student SAT scores. Teacher education students' verbal scores placed them at the 37th percentile in both 1972 and 1980 while their math scores placed them at the 37th percentile in 1972 and the 34th percentile in 1980 (Weaver, 1981).

The sorting-out process (e.g., changing majors or dropping out of a program) appears to be unfavorable for teacher education from data presented by Weaver (1981). The SAT average increased ninety-two points for all students and only fifty-three points for education students (Weaver, 1981). This finding mandates the necessity for continued rigorous screening procedures during the continuous progress phase of the teacher education program.

What are the demographic and personal characteristics of education majors? Most teacher education majors are female. A 1980-81 NEA Survey showed that nearly sixty-seven percent of practicing teachers were female (Status of the American Public School Teacher, 1980-81). NEA statistics also showed that in 1971, 35.8% of all teachers under thirty were male, but only 23.0% were male in 1981 (Status of the American Public School Teacher, 1981). Most likely this reflects indirectly the economic or salary conditions associated with teaching.

The NEA Survey lists the most frequently stated reasons

why teachers choose teaching:

1. Desire to work with young people
2. Interest in the subject to be taught
3. Social value of education
4. Influence of a former teacher
5. Long summer vacation
6. Influence of family
7. Job security
8. Never considered anything else
9. Opportunity for a lifetime of self-growth

(Status of the American Public School Teacher, 1981).

Items 2, 4, and 5 have become more prominent in student minds compared with past data, and item 9 has become less prominent. Other items have remained stable.

Finally, a brief comment about the research on which criteria relate to teaching success. Personality and grade point average are significant predictors of teaching success according to studies by Benjamin and Erdman (1977), Gress (1977), and Eash and Rasher (1977). Breland (1981) concluded after an exhaustive review of the literature on five admission criteria (biographical data, recommendations, interviews, interest measures, and personality measures) that biographical data and interest measures have been the most consistently reliable, valid, and acceptable criteria for future success in teaching.

Thus, it appears that quality control during the continuous progress phase can be most effective at the interpersonal relations level with faculty and classroom teachers doing the necessary screening and counseling out of weak or unacceptable student candidates in teacher education programs. This screening should definitely take place during both the early experiences phase and within the various professional methods courses of the program.



Student Teaching

In its publication, Educating a Profession: Profile of a Beginning Teacher, a task force of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (1983, n.p.) clearly delineated the desired outcomes for teacher candidates participating in field and clinical laboratory experiences. The Task Force agreed that a quality field component

...allows prospective teachers to observe and practice instructional theory in environments which facilitate early feedback, evaluation, and modification in the light of such experiences. These experiences include simulations and other controlled situations, micro-teaching, reflective teaching, observations of teachers, and student teaching (underscoring the committee's).

Student teaching is usually done during the final semester of the student's program of preparation for entry into the profession, and this should be one of the important checkpoints to assure quality control. Assuming that recruitment practices have been successful in attracting applicants from the upper levels of secondary graduating classes, that selection procedures for admission to teacher education have been well-devised and carefully administered, and that the prospective teacher has been carefully guided through a well-planned and well-supported program of studies designed to prepare the individual for success in the profession, the student should feel well-qualified to meet any standards established for this checkpoint.

As was the case at the point of admissions, standards should continue to relate to academic/intellectual, physical, and social/emotional dimensions of the prospective teacher's development. Criteria established to determine academic/intellectual development should continue to address the student's relative standing or rank in class and his knowledge of basic skill subjects; in addition, the student should be expected to demonstrate competencies in the professional and specialized education areas in which he has been working and for which he will seek teaching certification. Any deficiencies in the basic skills areas should have by now been corrected. Any health condition or physical impairment which might impinge upon the individual's teaching effectiveness should become a matter of record and should be discussed with the student in terms of its potential effect on employability or placement. There should be an update of the social/emotional record of the student through personal interview with the student, references from faculty who know the student well, and other means considered appropriate in the institution involved. State laws or regulations may require that specific kinds of standards be met in one or many areas, and criteria established at state level must be met, along with or in addition to local standards.

In addition to the above standards, the committee suggests that institutions consider the following criteria as quality indicators of excellence:

1. a formalized application procedure;
2. a screening committee and procedure to effectively identify counsel, and advise those students who do not meet the institution's minimum criteria (See Continuous Program section above);
3. written criteria for the selection of cooperating schools;
4. written criteria for the selection of cooperating teachers;
5. written criteria identifying the qualifications of college supervisors;
6. an orientation program that adequately prepares the student teacher for his/her community, school, classroom, and supervising teacher, and which explains in writing the policies and guidelines governing the program;
7. an orientation program that adequately prepares the cooperating school and teachers for a student teacher;
8. an orientation program for college supervisors that adequately prepares the college supervisor to work with the student teacher, cooperating teacher, and school;
9. a student teaching handbook that outlines the role, purpose, duties, and expectations of the student teacher, cooperating teacher, public school, college, and the college supervisor;
10. provisions for early contact by the student teacher with the cooperating school and teacher prior to the assumption of duties;
11. a statement of competencies that allows the student teacher, cooperating teacher, and college supervisor to continuously assess during the field experience;
12. a comprehensive field experience that provides the student teacher opportunities to

- *observe master teachers and team teach
- *plan, develop, and execute lessons
- *conduct long-range planning activities
- *design and administer tests
- *observe and evaluate students
- *utilize media and instructional resources
- *participate in extra-curricular activities
- *interact with faculty
- *manage and supervise students
- *teach the handicapped
- *perform in multi-cultural settings
- *interact with parents
- *grow professionally

13. a time frame of student teaching that permits the student teacher to work toward the successful completion of the program's competencies;
14. a planned program of student teaching in which the student teacher is phased in gradually, teaches full time, and is phased out systematically;
15. provisions for classroom visitations and observations of the student teacher by the cooperating teacher and college supervisor, followed by conferences;
16. a systematic plan of evaluation for the student teacher that identifies strengths, weaknesses, and makes constructive suggestions for improvement;
17. instruments of evaluation, appropriate to the student teaching assignment, which objectively measure student progress toward the stated competencies, including self-evaluation instruments;
18. a stated policy describing the appeals procedure for a student subject to withdrawal of failure;
19. continuous provision for inservice programs to strengthen the supervising skills of cooperating teachers; and
20. an incentive or reward system for participating schools and teachers, e.g., scholarships, tuition waivers.

Initial Certification

Most states are now preparing changes in certification/licensure standards and policies. The arguments for and against the State Education Agency versus federal standards and accreditation agencies rage on. The widely-diverse features of standards are significant when viewed as individual state policies, mandates, and requirements. The unique qualities for each state are often imposed by political/interest groups which have helped to design the structures. It would seem that one of the most important groups to develop initial certification standards to ensure quality should be institutions for teacher education, yet the state agencies, usually boards or commissions, seem to be in the forefront of reform. The move toward competency testing is in conflict with the traditional measures for certification in some states. States which use competency testing also set standards of cutoff scores which are diverse. Of the various methods of competency measures now being employed, the most popular systems for initial certification/licensing among states are either a state administered competency based test, the National Teachers' Examination (NTE), or skills tests in major subject areas. Performance rather than credentials is the mode during this period of reassessment in teacher education.

Perhaps a major cause of this struggle can be attributed to the rise in publicity education is now receiving, since proposals for change are being encountered now as never before. Reform measures are more often directed at public

education, but the preparation of quality teachers is a natural component of these reform measures. The publicity has been directed away from such causal factors as social changes, changes in student population figures, the American schooling system, past public demand for frills in education, and the present retrenchment problems in colleges and universities. The critics especially like to point to data from SAT and ACT scores of students in public schools as well as the training of candidates for initial certification. Sykes (1983, p. 29) contended, however, that "...no test's validity has been established as a predictor of effective teaching." Vlaanderen (1980) stated: "In the area of teacher licensing, competency and other tests (e.g., the NTE exam) are increasingly popular. Roughly three-fifths of the states now employ some form of testing for teachers, with the Southern states leading the way."

A brief sampling of states which now require the NTE substantiates Vlaanderen. NTE: Arkansas, Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, Rhode Island, Tennessee, Virginia. Test scores in areas of concentration: Nevada, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Texas. In addition, several states now require or are moving toward some form of testing candidates for initial certification. These tests are either basic skills of knowledge, comprehensive testing of curriculum knowledge, competency testing, or they have proposed changes through individual state pilot testing programs which will take effect in the next few years. Only a few of the remaining states do not require or plan testing. Wisconsin, Wyoming, South Dakota, Ohio, Nebraska, Minnesota, Massachusetts, Maine, Iowa, Illinois, Idaho, Hawaii, Delaware, and Alaska are the only states listed in the Report of the Council of Chief State School Officers' Ad Hoc Committee on Teacher Certification, Preparation, and Accreditation (July, 1982) which do not require testing or GPA at the initial certification level and which do not, at the present time, consider testing instruments.

One of the strongest arguments against testing appears to be that teacher educators are writing the tests. The State Board of Education, in several states, retains a question pool for its evaluative programs. Other agencies rely on skills tests, professional subject area tests, or the GPA scores. Just how much these testing programs serve as quality control features has yet to be decided and validated. Many states have been using testing programs for years, and there is insufficient research evidence that quality has improved. Until a standard cutoff score is determined, quality will remain tied to individual state requirements and needs. Institutions of higher education must somehow raise their standards of quality in various ways before results of a single test or subtests can validate excellence in the many areas of knowledge teachers must have. These tests, however, do allow a more uniform, standardized approach to certification

and training of teachers than teacher education programs may have. Certainly, such tests as the NTE have nationalized standards for skills in some areas where accreditation agencies' standards are more dependent upon individualized institutional teacher education programs. Teacher educators are finding that these standards interfere with individualization of programs and practices. There is also great diversity of cutoff points among states which use NTE.

Sykes (1983, p. 29) reported evidence of this infringement when he stated: "The evaluation and accreditation of teacher training institutions is another means of introducing quality control into the teacher preparation process. However, accreditation currently goes on at national, regional, and state levels, and standards tend to be overlapping, varied, and confusing. For example, the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) has sent site visit teams on a voluntary basis to nearly half of all teacher-training institutions, but a recent study reported that in 16 of 21 states investigated, institutions had state approval and had certified graduates for teaching in spite of disapproval by NCATE. Furthermore, accreditation seems a rather weak mechanism for quality control: approval is not linked to graduate effectiveness, participation in NCATE is voluntary, and accrediting agencies can only recommend, not require, program changes". (This study by Sykes refers to the study by C. Wheeler, Michigan State, 1980.

A North Central Association Workshop, 1982, presentation entitled "Competency Assessment in Teacher Education," stated that "...legislative actions that have been placed into law or are in the process of becoming law which pertain to competency assessment and testing of teachers in thirty-three states. The legislatures in these states have decided what tests, if any, must be passed with a given score before a teacher is permitted to teach within their respective borders. The legislature is the governance unit for its respective state. What it legislates will be honored by schools of education in other states that expect to make their graduates eligible for certification in other states". (ed. Jones, 1983, p. 178).

It would seem that a far more effective method of using quality standards such as grade point average, language proficiency tests, interviews, standardized tests, and other instruments for excellence at the initial certification level would be teacher education institutions developing individual competency and skill tests, performance instruments, and quality curriculum changes for candidates in their programs. The various state agencies could approve these quality tests, pool the resources for validation, and set cutoff points. In this manner, the chance of meeting or developing student supply in individual institutions within a state would be minimized. Performance objectives, quality criteria, specific courses, and credit hours within programs could be left to the individual institutions.

Some of the individualization takes place at the state level. Widely used requirements for initial certification/licensure are grade point averages (varied cutoff points), bachelor's degree, approved preparation program, field experience (which at many state levels also means student teaching only, or is synonymous with student teaching) and specific courses such as exceptional child (all candidates in Illinois and Missouri), multi-cultural education, teaching reading, counseling and guidance, and economic education (all four courses required in Nevada), and master's degree plus two years of experience for permanent certification (New York). The diversity in initial certification also includes some states which require a fifth year and/or preservice internship, and those which are using the "extended program" technique for students beyond the bachelor's degree.

A brief collation of the most obvious requirements, indicating states which require some form for each requirement can illustrate the diversity that now exists in the state requirements for initial certification/licensure:



TABLE II
CERTIFICATION REQUIREMENTS

NTE

Arkansas
 Mississippi (432)
 Louisiana (534)
 North Carolina (or GRE)
 Tennessee
 Texas
 Rhode Island
 Virginia

GPA

Alabama 1.2 (3)
 Georgia 2.0 (4)
 Kansas 2.5 (4)
 Kentucky 2.5 (4)
 Louisiana 2.5 (4)
 Montana 2.5 (4)
 Pennsylvania (2.75)

Field Experience/
Student Teaching

Alabama
 Arizona
 Arkansas
 California
 Colorado
 Florida
 Georgia
 Illinois
 Kentucky
 Louisiana
 Massachusetts
 Mississippi
 Missouri
 Montana
 Nebraska
 North Carolina
 North Dakota
 Ohio
 Oregon
 South Dakota
 Texas
 Wyoming

Endorsement/Approved Program

Alabama
 Alaska
 Arizona
 Arkansas
 California (27 competencies)
 Colorado
 Connecticut
 Delaware
 Georgia
 Hawaii
 Idaho
 Illinois
 Iowa
 Massachusetts
 Minnesota
 Missouri
 Nebraska
 New Hampshire
 New Jersey
 New Mexico
 North Carolina
 Ohio
 Oregon
 South Dakota
 Utah
 Vermont
 Wisconsin
 Wyoming

Internship

Alabama (10 weeks)

Written Test or SkillsState Education Agency Developed

Alabama
 Florida (FTCE)
 New Hampshire (Oral Interviews,
 on-site observations)
 New Mexico
 Oklahoma (H.B. 1706)
 Pennsylvania (IHE administered)
 South Carolina
 Washington (IHE administered)

TABLE II (Continued)

Bachelor's Degree

Alaska
 California
 Colorado (or 5 years experience and 75% on NTE)
 Delaware
 Georgia
 Indiana
 Iowa
 Kentucky
 Louisiana
 Missouri
 North Dakota
 South Dakota

PROPOSED CHANGES TABLE
(would like)CBTE

Arizona
 Kansas

Two Years Residency

Arizona

Fifth Year Internship

Arkansas
 Rhode Island

SEA In Process

California
 Colorado
 Indiana
 Maryland
 Michigan
 Nevada
 New Jersey
 North Dakota (State Legislature)
 Oklahoma
 Oregon
 Pennsylvania
 South Carolina
 West Virginia

The items on the tables have been carefully selected from the information given in the Scanlon Report. There has been no attempt to collate all specifics from the data. However, such states as New Hampshire, New York, Ohio, and Oklahoma, in particular, have reported measures which may fit some of the categories, but because of the reporting method used in these states, specific information was not available. The Field Experience/Student Teaching section is combined because of the nature of, or lack of, specifics from the states' reports. The Special Courses section was not collated, because so few states reported this section. There are also a number of other items not listed on the tables (e.g., duration of certificate, type, etc.) because of the diversity of the reporting system.

The tables do seem to reveal an awareness in approaches to quality control in educational practices at the initial certification/licensure level of teacher preparation. They also reveal states who retain endorsement or approved programs by institutions of higher education and their stronghold on teacher training practices and competencies which lead to the certification stage. Several state agencies are now preparing extensive testing programs. It should be noted that when the term "certification" is used, it can mean "licensure" in some instances, since some states (Missouri, for example) issue a permanent certificate at the initial level. The term may also mean "credential" for some states reporting. States that are looking at alternative certification standards have not been identified on the tables because of the diversity in format these programs suggest.

Most states and the teacher education institutions within those states have used selective professional courses for initial certification standards. Some have been imposed by accreditation agencies. The continued practice of developing, evaluating, and researching special courses, or at least strong components of existing courses, can result in better qualified candidates for certification/licensure. This practice appeals to teacher education institutions who are specifying performance objectives and affective skills for their candidates. Teacher educators also tend to prefer teaching effectiveness procedures directly related to classroom performance, focusing on quality professional programs and teacher productivity as their goals. How to scientifically measure these skills continues to be a problem, but this should not diminish their importance in the move for excellence. When desirable objectives, concrete educational skills, effective teaching strategies, and other quality control measurements at critical stages of teacher preparation programs become the important earmarks of quality, improved assessment, and quality will result.

The committee recommends that teacher educators take a more active role in developing the requirements for certification/licensure. They must be the ones who effect changes in education. They must also be the ones who continue research in education.

Quality must begin with teacher education institutions, and it must be those who are in the business/profession of educating educators that make the decisions concerning quality. They must be the ones who communicate quality teaching within their institutions, set the standards of achievement in classes, programs, and direct the research which qualifies and quantifies quality teacher education.

An analysis of teacher education by D.C. Smith and S. Street (1980, p. 105), found that "Unlike professional education in other fields, teaching has not developed an extended period of preservice preparation. While the history of professional education in such fields as law, medicine, and engineering reveals a progressive extension of the time devoted to preparation and an increase in the requirements for a license to practice, teacher preparation has remained virtually unchanged for the past 50 years." However, historically the profession of teaching has never been able to validate research which deals with all the facets of teaching and learning. Their public does tend to believe the credibility of nationally administered tests (e.g., NTE, administered by Educational Testing Service); yet some of the best tests of quality teaching should be basic competencies in professional teaching skills, observations in actual teaching competencies and situations, and better research on tests which validate professional knowledge.

Change has occurred. States and individual institutions for teacher education have updated goals and certification requirements in recent years, but the changes have been largely due to public concern and demands for quality education. Teacher education has improved, and certainly initial certification/licensure practices in most states have been responding with improved quality in their programs in teacher education. Emergency measures have been made periodically which have tended to weaken certification procedures in some states. The measures taken at the state level should serve as guidelines only for teacher education programs and practices. Teacher educators must focus on new and improved methods of training teacher candidates before they reach the certification/licensure level. Improvement in student performance is a necessary goal for teacher education. Qualitative research is needed in this area with focus on model programs at the individual institutional level, curricular changes for quality control, and attitudes, skills, and knowledge assessment instruments for measuring quality teacher effectiveness.

Probationary Period

A critical point at which quality control procedures should be employed is the probationary stage of teacher education. Past experience shows us that teacher education institutions may lose part of their effectiveness here because

of the apparent lack of funding for inservice development, the regulations of individual public schools where probationary teachers are working, and control measures specified by professional groups. These should be viewed as partnerships in higher education. The state education agencies (SEA) have specified that they set up "A policy of having the teachers themselves determine standards for inservice education subject areas, content, and content mastery" (Scanlon, p. 25). Many beginning teachers will become members of collective bargaining units, professional organizations with specific standards, and other, sometimes locally defined, structures with directives for inservice procedures. Certainly local school authorities will specify probationary and inservice methods. Teacher education institutions should be aware of the complexities that beset the beginning teacher so that new burdens for professional growth are not added to the tremendous workloads they already encounter in their on-the-job training.

The diversity that exists in the area of probationary and inservice assessments for teachers in various states seems endless. If teacher education institutions are to promote quality in teacher education, they should begin before this stage and ensure the earlier checkpoints of quality control. Then, the probationary period for new teachers would emerge as a sound public relations/cooperative effort to support teachers who are teaching in the public schools. Teacher education programs and certification requirement agencies which require internships, masters' degrees, renewal of certificates at specific years (1, 2, 3, plus) and class certificates, or additional professional development programs can help teacher educators ensure that beginning teachers use their skills, avoid early burnout, and teacher education personnel can support supervisory teachers in their relationships with the public schools which hire their teachers.

Some suggested methods of checkpointing quality in teacher education at the probationary period are:

1. That teachers determine periods of probation in specified areas such as content areas where they feel weaknesses exist for themselves personally and professionally.
2. In states where licensure means permanent certification, some solutions to problems of this practice in initial certification should be reviewed. Research in this area may be valuable.
3. That teacher education institutions, in cooperation with state agencies (Boards, Commissions), set standards and evaluative criteria for requirements which can help probationary teachers continue to develop skills and knowledge related to performance.

4. That a review of existing requirements for additional credit hours be done to insure that hours and courses chosen for the fulfillment be appropriate to teaching areas or need within the institution (school system) where the probationary teacher is teaching.
5. That policies of teacher performance be reviewed in order to determine appropriate criterion practices beyond the bachelor's degree.
6. That on-the-job performance be evaluated as a cooperative effort between college teachers, school officials, and supervisory personnel.
7. That a review be made of state officers' desire "to move away from permanent or lifetime certificates to renewable certificates depending on continuing education and sometimes on-job-performance" (Scanlon, p. 26).
8. That a review of released time in institutions where probationary teachers are working be done to develop models to aid and help identify quality.
9. That a variety of professional, academically sound activities be established to substitute for "credit hours" during the probationary period.
10. That a review be made to establish possibilities for state educational agencies to fund inservice training programs during the probationary period if states mandate such requirements.
11. That the possibilities for teacher centers be studied where travel prohibits "credit hour" requirements for probationary teachers in isolated areas.
12. That close review of the existing policy in Hawaii be done. Hawaii State Education Agency believes that the job of probation is a "personnel management" responsibility and not one of recertification by a state agency.
13. That innovative programs be reviewed periodically to ensure academically sound practices related to teacher effectiveness and performance.
14. That graduate level coursework (leading toward a degree program) and experience be justification for requirements at this level.

The focus on quality teaching during the probationary period should be on the further development of promising quality teaching practices and teachers. It has been a tendency for teachers to leave careers early because of dissatisfaction and disappointment. Instead of merely adding to their work load via tacking on requirements, expert supervision, support, positive reinforcement of quality performance through commendations, reward, and support of accomplishments should be established early. Unique programs and models should be sought and implemented intelligently to promote quality. Diversity in programs should be a positive factor in developing quality and representative research should be encouraged to

assist in the continuing efforts for quality control. Stimulating, courageous, and effective teachers are quality teachers, and the combined efforts of all interested educators should be utilized to develop quality products, excellent teachers.

Life-Long Professional Growth And Development

Preparatory programs for teachers are intended to provide knowledge, skills, and attitudes which will enable the teacher to enter the teaching profession with at least the minimal qualifications required for successful practice. The actual education of the teacher has only begun at this point. During probationary periods leading to additional licensure or tenured employment, the teacher is expected to continue to grow professionally, and checkpoints can logically be built into the programs leading to permanent licensure or employment.

The research in the area of life-long professional growth clearly supports the assumption that professional development is essential to better teaching, greater understanding of children and youth, and improved curricula (Holly & Blackman, 1981), and that most educators agree to its importance and the methods that should be used (Fainsworth, 1981).

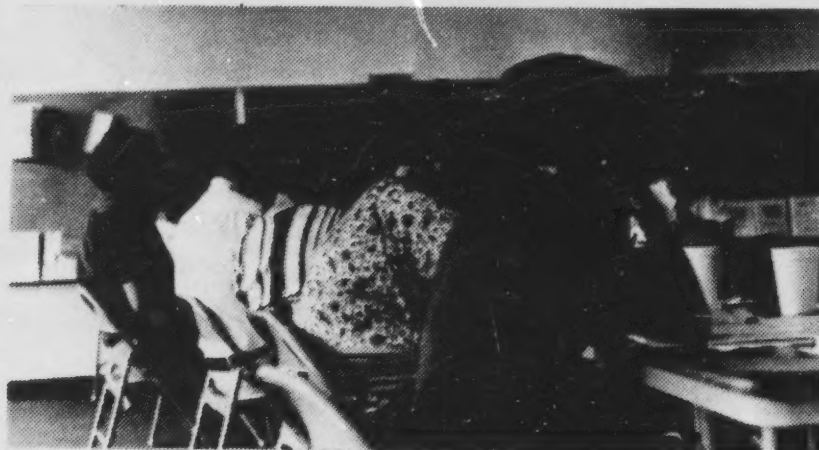
Also equally clear is the belief that teachers and administrators must assume stronger leadership in planning, developing, and implementing continuing education programs throughout their professional careers or be confronted with the prospect of mandatory continuing education laws (Killian & Others, 1980). At the same time, a promising trend which appears to be developing in the continuing education area is the professional growth contract (Geller, 1982). According to Geller, this concept provides a significant means by which a school staff can define and plan its own professional development needs.

The AACTE model for assessment of teaching competencies (April, 1983, n.p.) proposes that teacher educators "continue to provide support and assessment for the first-year teacher". The committee proposes that periodic assessment should continue throughout the professional life of the teacher. While responsibility for planning professional growth programs for the practicing teacher should probably devolve upon state and local education agencies, teacher educators should continue to be available as resources for program development. Continued professional growth is essential, beyond the first year of the teaching career, if education is to remain alive and well. It is the suggestion of the NCA Workshop Committee that local boards of education, working cooperatively with administrators and teachers, assume responsibility for promoting continued professional growth and that systematic checkpoints be established for quality control. Provision can and should be made for periodic professional and personal rejuvenation for

each teacher in the district, regardless of years of service. An individual growth plan should be cooperatively developed by the teacher and his immediate supervisor or administrator based upon shared evaluation of strengths and weaknesses of the individual teacher. Appropriate recognition should be given as growth is achieved, and personnel records and remuneration should reflect evidence of such growth. Released time and funding of some professional growth activities should be considered a reasonable contribution by boards of education truly concerned about the quality of teaching in their schools.

Checkpoints might be established at three or five-year intervals, depending upon local conditions and needs. The kinds of evidence which could be considered acceptable as meeting requirements for professional growth might vary considerably according to such factors as: curriculum changes necessitating the acquisition of new knowledge, skills and attitudes; initial competencies of individual teacher employees; desire of an individual teacher to change teaching field or level; major involvement of one or more teachers in professional association or related activities; school district enrollment changes causing need for "retooling" of some faculty; research findings related to improved teaching practices or to learning theory with implications for updating of faculty competencies; and technological changes impacting upon educational programs and practices.

Since the future is yet to be determined, it is important that sufficient flexibility be provided in any master plan to make it possible to provide professional growth opportunities at the most strategic times to insure continued high quality teaching in classrooms. The future of public education may well rest upon the dedication and efficiency with which teacher education institutions, state agencies, and local boards of education meet the challenge of providing for quality control throughout the pre-professional and professional career of the teacher.



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CHAPTER IV

STRENGTHENING THE PROFESSIONAL CURRICULUM

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In America we speak about an educational system as though a unitary system really exists, when in reality, what we have is a collection of a wide variety of subsystems loosely collected in a variety of combinations. These subsystems are represented by one-teacher rural schools, multi-teacher elementary schools, middle-schools of varying configurations, junior high schools, high schools with different qualifications for graduation, junior colleges, community colleges, vocational-technical schools and, finally, a wide variety of institutions of higher education each with its own entrance and exit requirements.

As a nation, the United States has always been a country of diversity. From its founding by groups of religious persons each seeking the freedom to worship God in a unique way and each regarding education from a specific point of view, to the opportunities allowed to the states by the framers of the Constitution, to the initial and continuing debate of federalism and antifederalism, the American people have persistently opted for the freedom of diversity as opposed to the control of central planners. There are those who contend that we need a system of education, a system complete with centralized planning,

while others contend that we only need to improve the existing components. One of the major concerns of the educational reforms is attempts to gain complete understanding of the whole system, recognizing that when one part of the system changes, that change impinges upon other parts of the system.

It is with this concept in mind that consideration is given to an important part of the "system" of education, the concern for teacher education during an era when several agencies are competing for control of teacher education and the certification process. This controversy can be seen as a power struggle, or it can be viewed more positively as a dialectic, a competition of arguments out of which may arise a synthesis which may result in an improved educational experience for all students, elementary, secondary and higher.

Diversification of Thrusts in Teacher Education

It should be of more than passing interest to those involved in the process of preparing teachers that the thrust for improvement is coming from a broad front which includes a complex array of constituencies. These constituencies range from legislative bodies, chief state school officers, regional boards, professional organizations like the NEA and the AACTE to sub-component organizations of the profession such as the Council for Exceptional Children or groups representing mathematics, reading, English, etc. Each of the groups seeks to have input into the total teacher education process. One of the major stumbling blocks to improvement of the profession has been the profession's lack of ability to establish consensus on what constitutes the total teacher education process or where and how these various groups could legitimately have input. Inability to resolve these two major problems has contributed significantly to the generation of the fire-storms of debate that sweep across the educational scene periodically.

The debate over teacher education has waxed and waned throughout most of the twentieth century. This debate has vacillated between arguments over means to accomplish specific purposes in teacher education to hot debates over specific ends to be sought for particular programs. All too often these debates have simply led to muddled confusion over what constitutes means and ends for teacher education programs and what should receive priority emphases. The AACTE Profile Papers were intended to serve as landmark guides in the formulation of teacher education programs. Instead they serve as prime examples of this type of confusion. Hot debates generated by these papers have been waged over such topics as the length of an adequate teacher education program and the amount of field experience that a minimally acceptable teacher education program would contain. Hot debates have also been waged over the skills advocated by these papers that the product of an adequate teacher education program should be able to display. One series of debates centers about means .

questions while the other centers about ends questions.

It might be helpful in avoiding such confusion if one would think about teacher education programs as consisting of paradigms composed of a series of beliefs and assumptions revolving about what schooling is; what teaching is; and what specific knowledge skills and attitudes are necessary to prepare teachers to function adequately in their assigned roles. Spodek has reported this approach by stating:

All teacher education is a form of ideology. Each program is related to the educational ideology held by a particular teacher education institution, even though the relationship may not be made explicit. There is no such thing as a value-free teacher education just as there is no such thing as a value-free education for children. (Spodek, 1974, pp. 8-9).

If one accepts Spodek's contention about values and teacher education then one can easily make the next logical step and also accept Zeichner's identification of four broad paradigms for teacher education that have been and still are exerting a major influence on the structure of teacher education programs (Zeichner, 1983, pp. 3-8). Granted that each of the four paradigms are internally quite diverse and broadly conceived yet each paradigm is at the same time held together by a set of common assumptions that distinguishes the basic goals of one position from another in a conceptually identifiable way.

The *first paradigm* that is most familiar to teacher education is that of the behavioristic teacher education paradigm. The knowledge, skills, attitudes, and abilities that one seeks to develop in prospective teachers are identified in advance and the performance level that constitutes successful accomplishment is spelled out. Those that are undergoing training in this mode function as participants rather than as contributors. Competency based teacher education would be a prime example of this process.

A *second paradigm* that has had a major influence on teacher education is the personalistic teacher education paradigm. This approach stresses personal development of the prospective teacher and emphasizes the reorganization of perceptions and beliefs rather than the acquisition of skills and information per se. Personalized, open, and humanistic are all approaches that would be subsumed in this paradigm.

The *third approach* or paradigm can be designated the traditional-craft approach. This approach views teachers as craftsmen and students as apprentices. This view would contend that much of the salient knowledge needed by teachers is gained

through trial and error experiences under the careful guidance of the craftsman who possess the wisdom of experiences. This paradigm is very evident in the student teaching programs conducted by most teacher education institutions and undergirds the NEA position on teacher education.

The final paradigm that underlies many teacher education programs involves the inquiry oriented teacher education approach. Skills, knowledge and abilities are seen as means to an end rather than as the end itself. Emphasis in this approach is given to developing in students the ability to determine what ought to be done. Teachers are taught to weigh, reflect, examine and engage in critical inquiry as they function in their various roles.

It should be noted that the differentiation of programs in teacher education based on their goals and assumptions is more a matter of internal priorities and ordering of goals than it is a differentiation of goals. Teacher education programs tend to differ more in degree than they do in kind.

The previous contention is supported when one examines the standards developed by the various agencies that undergird teacher education. The whole area of standards has been fraught with misunderstanding and controversy. There seems to be the confusion about the role of standards.

The Search For Standards

Perhaps the role of standards within a system is best expressed by Churchman who says:

"The problem of system improvement is the problem of the 'ethics of the whole system'. In some sense this use of the term ethics may seem unusual, because ethics is a term often used to connote concepts of good and bad with respect to individual conduct. Indeed in ordinary discourse the basic underlying notion behind discussions of ethics is closely related to blame and praise. Yet it seems futile indeed to blame the entire system for its particular inept behavior; instead we have a natural inclination to try to single out individuals within systems who should be blamed for the particular evils or inefficiencies these systems exhibit.

....The ethics of whole systems incorporates the concepts of the ethics of individual behavior and places the problem of ethics of individual behavior within the context of the whole system." (Churchman, 1968, pp. 4-5)

Thus, the search for standards provides a yardstick against which the behaviors of those associated with the system can be measured. Of major concern, of course, is the behavior, or competence of the professionals within the system just as it is with the concern of who is responsible for establishing the standards. Since our population is highly mobile, a mutual dependence is established among our various states for the proper education of this peripatetic group of workers and students.

In the material which follows, an attempt will be made to look at some of the similarities and differences found in the standards of NCATE, AACTE, and NEA. Some words of caution are appropriate. In looking at the NCATE standards, only those standards dealing with curriculum were considered. All of the standards were edited to eliminate the discussion surrounding the standards. Since these discussions are essential for complete understanding of the standards and the position of the particular organization, it is recommended that the reader study the complete documents for greater understanding and appreciation of their content. The standards of the various organizations are presented in various type format.



CHART 1

Comparison of Association Positions
 "Determination of Objectives"

NCATE

- 2.1 - Teacher education curricula are based on explicit objectives that reflect the institution's conception of the teacher's role. There is a direct and obvious relationship between these objectives and the components of the curriculum.

AACTE

No Statement

NEA

- 1.1 - The purpose of the program is to prepare beginning teachers to function effectively when beginning practice.
- 1.2 - The program plan is based on an established knowledge base derived from what teachers do in a classroom.
- 1.3 - The program is systematically planned and there is coordination among the liberal arts, teaching specialty, and professional curricula.
- 1.4 - The program is designed and developed primarily by persons expert in pedagogy, practice, and academic specializations.
- 1.5 - The overall program design reflects planned opportunities for acquiring knowledge and skills essential for successful classroom functioning.

CHART 2

Comparison of Association Positions
 "Multicultural Education"

NCATE

- 2.1.1 - The institution provides for multicultural education in its teacher education curricula, including both the general and professional studies components.

AACTE

No Distinct Statement.

NEA

- 4.1.7 - The program provides opportunities for education students to acquire and apply appropriate knowledge and skills effectively for teaching students of varying racial, cultural, linguistic, religious, and socioeconomic backgrounds.

CHART 3

Comparison of Association Positions
"Exceptional Learners"

NCATE

- 2.1.2 - The institution provides its graduates with the knowledge and skills necessary to provide an appropriate education for exceptional learners.

AACTE

Specialized Pedagogical Knowledge and Skills. Generic knowledge of teaching provides a basis for more specialized pedagogical knowledge and skills; some of which relate specifically to the subject or content to be taught, and others to the age or grade level of the learner. Still other competencies are linked with the cultural backgrounds and physical and mental abilities of the learners.

Professional studies in this component should enable teacher candidates to--

1. employ instructional strategies, select and use materials, and engage in management procedures that are unique to the subject(s), grade level, or student group;
2. be aware of competencies from other areas related to their specializations that will enable them to--
 - a. work with pupils having physical or mental disabilities;
 - b. develop effective learning environments for pupils from different cultural backgrounds and limited English proficiency;
 - c. facilitate the coordination of their specialization with other parts of the school program.

NEA

No Statement

CHART 4

Comparison of Association Positions
"General Studies"NCATE

- 2.2 - There is a planned general studies component requiring that at least one-third of each curriculum for prospective teachers consists of studies in the symbolics of information, natural and behavioral sciences, and humanities.

AACTE

Profile for General Education. General education provides knowledge that enables students to understand themselves, their society, and the world in which they live. The information imparted in the general education component serves as a tool throughout life to solve problems, to think critically, and to comprehend past, present, and future events. Because teachers are generalists as well as specialists, they need to be knowledgeable in a wide range of areas and capable of understanding them in broad conceptual contexts. General education should result in an understanding of the fundamental, interrelated natures of the six areas outlined below (adapted from Boyer, 1981). Such an understanding comes from study of a variety of cultures in both historical and current settings.

Communications. The most fundamental outcome of the general education component is a teacher skilled in the art of communication. This includes--

1. proficiency in reading, writing, and mathematics;
2. understanding the nature, evolution, and uses of language, and how language reflects cultural values and traditions;
3. study of a second language;
4. understanding non-verbal communication including music, dance, and the visual arts;
5. understanding the function, use, and impact of mass communication;
6. understanding the function, use, and impact of computer technology.

A teacher's ability to communicate is essential to all components of a teacher preparation program. In addition to understanding an area of knowledge, a teacher must be able to convey that knowledge in a meaningful way to learners.

Understanding the importance of groups and institutions. A teacher should be able to convey the importance of groups and institutions through an understanding of their--

1. origins and development;
2. organization;
3. functions;
4. strengths and weaknesses;
5. historical impact;
6. relationship to cultural characteristics.

Understanding the relationship of society and work. A teacher should be able to convey the relationship of society and work through an understanding of--

1. historical, philosophical, religious, and social attitudes toward work;
2. the relationship of individuals and groups to the production process.

Understanding the relationship of nature and the universe. A teacher should be able to convey--

1. the processes and applications of science and its influence on society;
2. the interrelatedness of the various elements of nature;
3. values and ethics as related to scientific knowledge;
4. the idea of knowledge as an interrelated whole.

Understanding the relationship of time and civilization. A teacher should be able to convey the concepts of--

1. the interrelatedness of past, present, and future events;
2. the convergence of social, religious, political, economic, and intellectual forces;
3. the emergence, contributions, and decline of major civilizations.

Understanding shared values and beliefs. A teacher should be able to convey the meaning of--

1. laws, customs, and traditions in relation to a variety of cultures;
2. the derivation of social ethics and morality;
3. the derivation of individual values and beliefs.

In essence, the general education component encourages teacher candidates to explore the interrelationship of knowledge, to use evidence and logic to make rational decisions, and to convey their knowledge and understanding to others.

NEA

- 4.1.1 - The program provides for improving education students' proficiency in basic skills if related admission requirements have not been met.
- 4.1.2 - The program provides instruction in the liberal arts.

- 4.1.3 - The program provides instruction in critical thinking, problem solving, and creativity.

CHART 5

Comparison of Association Positions Professional Studies Component Academic Content

NCATE

- 2.3.1 - The professional studies component of each curriculum for prospective teachers includes the study of the content to be taught to pupils and the supplementary knowledge, from the subject matter of the teaching specialty and from allied fields, that is needed by the teacher for perspective and flexibility in teaching.

AACTE

Profile for Academic Specialization. Academic specialization refers to the study of subjects for which a teacher candidate may be responsible in an elementary or secondary school. The guiding principle for judging competence in an academic specialty is ascertaining whether the teacher candidate has sufficient knowledge of the subject(s) to instruct learners at their individual levels of readiness, while remaining true to the structure of knowledge in the academic discipline(s).

Elementary teachers. Elementary teachers should have--

1. sufficient understanding to convey knowledge in and guide the development of young learners in the following subjects: English; art and music; literature; mathematics; physical and biological sciences; history; political science; and economics;
2. the ability to comprehend and modify;
3. the ability to pursue advanced study in at least one of the fields above.

Secondary teachers. Secondary teachers should have acquired in at least two fields of study the abilities to--

1. discuss the logical structure, uses, and modes of inquiry;
2. describe methods of processing information and determining reliability;
3. pursue the independent study of new works in the two fields;
4. establish standards of excellent achievement in the fields.

All-level teachers (K-12). Teachers in specialized fields commonly taught throughout the K-12 sequence (e.g., art, music, and physical education, should--

1. understand the disciplines sufficiently to adapt instruction for all learners, depending on individual levels of readiness;
2. be able to comprehend and modify instructional materials in the field(s);
3. be able to pursue independent study of new knowledge in the field(s);
4. be able to establish standards of excellence along with the K-12 continuum of learning and development.

NEA

- 2.5 The program coordinates specific methodology with subject matter specialties.
- 4.1.4 - The program provides in-depth instruction in the subject matter specialty(ies) the education student proposes to teach, as well as in closely related fields.

CHAPTER 6

Comparison of Association Positions Professional Studies Component Humanistic & Behavioral Studies

NCATE

- 2.3.2 - The professional studies component of each curriculum for prospective teachers includes instruction in the humanistic studies and the behavioral studies.

AACTE

Profile for Preprofessional Study in the Disciplines Undergirding Education. The complex nature of teaching demands that teacher education programs provide an adequate, theoretical foundation in the undergirding disciplines, primarily the social and behavioral sciences. Studies in anthropology, philosophy, psychology, and sociology, in particular, afford contextual knowledge that undergirds professional practice in teaching as well as in other social professions.

Preprofessional studies extend and amplify the introductory experiences that teacher candidates share with all other students in the general education component. As

results of preprofessional studies, teacher candidates should--

1. understand the principles and modes of inquiry that illuminate human behavior, cultural influences, social institutions, and significant political, economic, and philosophical systems;
2. understand the major human and technological factors that foster and inhibit effective communication among individuals and social groups;
3. gain a sense of disciplinary roots of professional practice shared by teachers and other human service professionals.

NEA

- 4.1.5 - The program provides instruction in human growth and development.
- 4.1.6 - The program provides instruction in how humans learn.

CHART 7

Comparison of Association Positions Professional Studies Component Learning Theory

NCATE

- 2.3.3 - The professional studies component of each curriculum includes the systematic study of teaching and learning theory with appropriate laboratory and clinical experiences.

AACTE

Profile of Professional Studies. The pedagogical component of initial teacher preparation is comprised of the following:

- foundational studies in education;
- generic teaching knowledge and skills;
- specialized pedagogical knowledge and skills;
- a series of related field and clinical laboratory experiences culminating in a beginning teacher program that provides support from peers, higher education faculty, and school supervisors.

As with the entire collegiate program, these components should be viewed not as discrete parts of a fixed sequence, but as interactive elements designed to ensure a safe level of initial professional practice.

Foundational studies. Foundational studies in education build on the undergirding disciplines and focus on learning and human development; social, philosophic, historical, and economic policy studies in education; and "professional literacy."

From foundational studies teacher candidates should--

1. understand the political and legal bases of American education and their impact on the schools, their clients, and the teaching profession;
2. comprehend the major premises and developments associated with significant historical and contemporary schools of pedagogical thought as a means of examining and shaping their professional values;
3. use historical and comparative knowledge to assess current trends and anticipate educational consequences;
4. gain a working knowledge of statistics and other research methods sufficient to understand and apply research findings to their subsequent instructional decisions.

Generic teaching knowledge and skills. Generic teaching knowledge and skills refer to pedagogical elements common to all teaching experiences and useful in every subject field, grade level, and student population (e.g., urban, rural, handicapped, etc.). For example, skill in observation--the ability to observe students and the educational milieu without bias or prejudice because of race, class, gender, ideology, or disability--is important for every teacher and implicit in most of the generic elements that follow.*

By studying and practicing these generic skills, teacher candidates should attain sufficient facility in--

1. diagnosing and interpreting students' needs (a teacher collects information about each student to ascertain learning needs and problems);
2. conceiving and planning instruction (knowing what students need to learn a teacher sets objectives, devises lessons to achieve the goals, and selects curricular materials);
3. conducting instruction (a teacher uses many different strategies for instructing students including individual and small or large group instruction, peer teaching, techniques for questioning and discussion, and appropriate technology);
4. evaluating instruction (a teacher employs a variety of evaluation processes and instruments to ascertain if students learned what was taught. Results are used to redesign instruction);
5. applying curriculum design theory (a teacher

- 6. understands and structures the content to be taught); using instructional technology (a teacher knows where to find and how to select appropriate print and non-print materials);
- 7. managing the classroom (a teacher organizes the classroom, structures activities for productive learning, and unobtrusively manages on and off task behavior);
- 8. promoting interaction (a teacher interacts with students, colleagues, administrators, parents, and others in effective, productive ways);
- 9. arranging conferral and referral (using school and community resources, a teacher knows when and with whom to confer and to whom to make referrals).

NEA

- 2.1 - Program implementation is consistent with program purposes and design.
- 2.4 - The program provides sufficient opportunities for education students to practice what they are learning.
- 4.2.1 - The program provides instruction in planning for teaching.
- 4.2.2 - The program provides instruction in teaching strategies known to promote student learning.
- 4.2.3 - The program includes instruction in the decision-making role of the teacher.
- 4.2.4 - The program provides instruction in using print and non-print materials and emerging technology.
- 4.2.6 - The program includes instruction in classroom management.
- 4.2.7 - The program provides instruction in learning to practice a broad range of interpersonal and group-process skills.
- 4.2.9 - The program provides instruction in a broad range of processes for evaluating student learning.
- 4.2.10 - The program provides instruction in the unique role, significance, and contribution of schooling in American democracy.
- 4.2.11 - The program provides instruction in how American schools are supported, governed, and organized.

- 4.2.12 - The program provides instruction in the rights and responsibilities of teachers and students

*The nine generic teaching skills are synthesized from Denmark and Nutter (1980), Reynolds (1980), Smith (1980), and Howsam and others (1976).

CHART 8

Comparison of Association Positions Professional Studies Component Laboratory Experiences

NCATE

- 2.3.4 - The professional studies component of each curriculum for prospective teachers includes direct, substantial, quality participation in teaching over an extended period of time in an elementary or secondary school. This practicum should be under the supervision of college personnel who are experienced in, and have continuing experience with, elementary or secondary teaching, and certificated, experienced personnel from the cooperating school. Explicit criteria are established and applied for the selection of school supervisors and for the assignment of college personnel.

AACTE

Field and Clinical Laboratory Experience. Field and clinical laboratory experiences allow teacher candidates to observe and practice in real but controlled environments. Through a series of structured, supervised experiences, candidates move professionally toward full responsibility for classroom instruction. This component of professional preparation seeks to relate theory and practice through a series of increasingly demanding clinical and field experiences. It seeks to merge a broad mix of campus and field learning into a coherent professional repertoire appropriate for beginning the practice of teaching.

Field and clinical laboratory experiences should afford teacher candidates opportunities to--

1. experience the real world of students, schools, communities, and the teaching profession;
2. apply both the scientific and the artistic dimensions of teaching to real and simulated classroom situations;

3. develop levels of competence and confidence in using their professional repertoire of skills;
4. assume, under supervision, partial and then full responsibility for classroom teaching;
5. identify with the teaching profession and gain a sense of the range of responsibilities associated with a competent professional.

NEA

- 2.3 - College-based teacher educators demonstrate practical knowledge of schools and classroom teaching.
- 4.2.8 - The program provides instruction in a broad range of communication skills as they relate to the professional role of the teacher.

CHART 9

Comparison of Association Positions
Planning Curriculum

NCATE

- 2.4 - In planning and developing curricula for teacher education, the institution studies the recommendations of national professional associations and learned societies and adopts a rationale for the selection and implementation of pertinent sets of recommendations for each teacher education program.

AACTE

No Statement

NEA

No Statement

CHART 10

Comparison of Association Positions
Additional NEA PointsNEA

- 2.2 - Procedures for student admittance, continued enrollment, and graduation are consistent with program purposes.
- 3.1 - College-based teacher educators and school-based teacher educators model attitudes and behaviors desired of education students.
- 3.2 - College-based teacher educators and school-based teacher educators have in-depth preparation, training, and experiences in their instructional fields.
- 3.3 - College-based faculty are evaluated on appropriate criteria, and personnel decisions are consistent with the results of the evaluation.
- 4.2.13 - The program provides instruction in the concepts and differences between governance of education and governance of the teaching profession.
- 5.1 - The program provides instruction in how the profession is organized, the functions of a variety of professional organizations, and the responsibilities of being a member of the profession.
- 5.2 - The program provides instruction in the relationship of the profession to governance of public school systems.

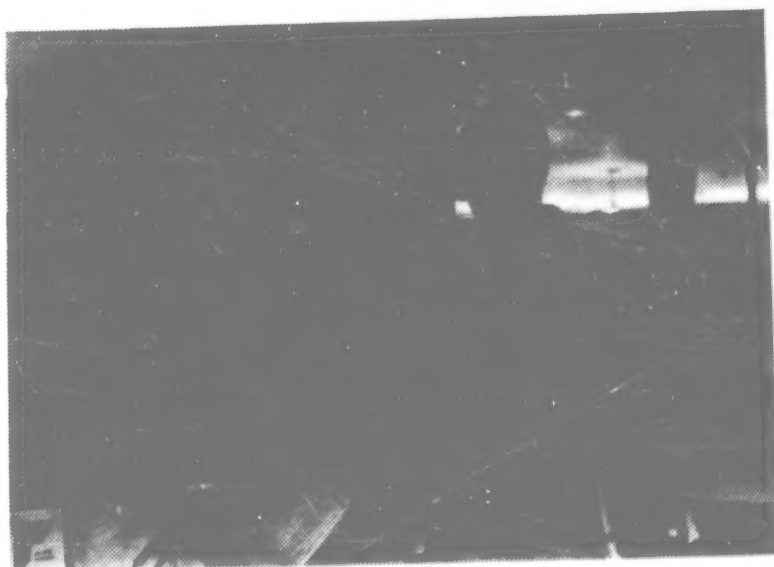
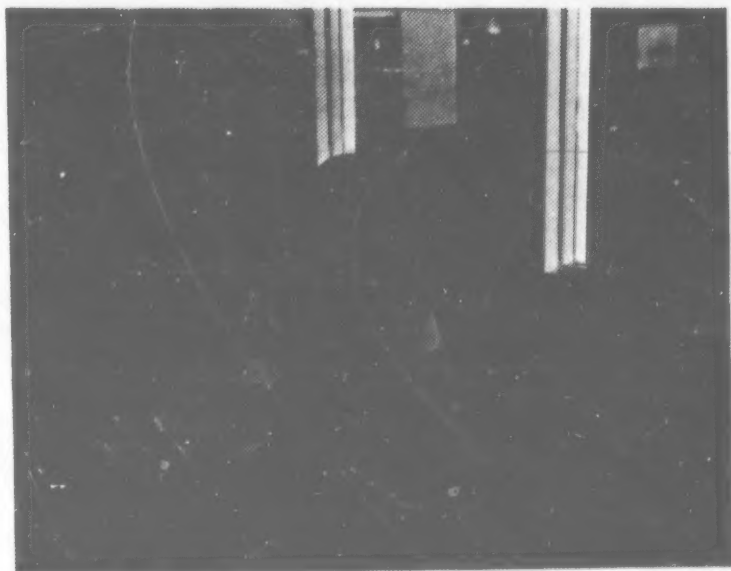
A careful examination of the priorities and positions enumerated by the various organizations that undergird the teaching profession support the contention that differences are more a matter of degree than of kind. One also finds threads of the various paradigms running throughout the many standards. The AACTE and NCATE standards tend to reflect a mix of the behavioristic and inquiry oriented paradigms. The recommendations of the NEA in contrast, tend to reflect the traditional-craft paradigm.

A study of the standards indicates that there are identifiable areas in which there is general consensus among all the supporters of the various paradigms in teacher education. General consensus does seem to exist supporting the inclusion of several major components in all teacher education programs. For example, there seems to be general agreement that a solid foundation in general studies should undergird all teacher education programs. There is also consensus on the inclusion of a comprehensive study of the technical skills of teaching accompanied by extensive field and laboratory experiences. Additionally there is consensus on the inclusion of the requirement for in-depth study in those areas of the curriculum for which the specific teacher will have instructional responsibility. Finally, there is general consensus that all programs in teacher education should contain a component dealing with an interdisciplinary approach to the subjects that undergird education such as psychology, sociology, political science and economics.

When one considers that the Council of Chief State School Officers is also competing for control of teacher preparation and the fact that it is the individual states which actually control the issuance of teaching licenses, the concern about which set of standards to follow becomes much more clouded. Should teacher preparation programs follow the guidance of their traditional accrediting agency (NCATE), should they support their own organization (AACTE), should they throw in with the organized profession (NEA) or should they buckle under to the dictates of the state certification process? Unfortunately, each choice has its advantages and disadvantages. For example, the NCATE standards probably allow the greatest degree of freedom for local institutional control. This position has a long history and is also supported by current management theory. Apple, in writing about teachers, says, "There is no better formula for alienation and burn out than loss of control of the job." (Apple, 1983, p. 323) On the other extreme, if teacher preparation programs do not satisfy the certification standards of the state, it makes no difference at all how good the product of the program is, for they will not be certified.

The search for standards is a dialectic, unfortunately, however, there is one group in a power position, for only the state can actually license a teacher to teach.





Title VII-ESEA, the Lau Decision and the NCATE Multicultural Education Standard - have fostered an atmosphere of sensitivity and activism in the nation's schools, colleges, departments of education (SCDEs).

The Right Values

In "A Study Of Schooling" John Goodlad points out that teachers, while valuing a diversity of well-intentioned, sound instructional techniques are nonetheless imprisoned within the traditional lecture-recitation mode due to classroom circumstances over which they have only partial control. He states:

"...our data on 1,350 teachers show that their professional values lean strongly toward practices that appear to reflect these broader expectations. In practice, however, these teachers cling to conventional teaching practices because of circumstances of their classrooms, the models with which they are most familiar, and the messages they hear. Why should they make the difficult (and perhaps even dangerous) effort to deviate? A growing body of evidence suggests, however, that teachers often respond eagerly to alternative methods of teaching that relate to many of their deepest professional values, when they are given support, encouragement, and protection." (Goodlad, 1983, p. 553)

The implied message in this statement is that teachers developed these values largely in pre-service programs. They were often exposed to a plethora of methodologies, only to be frustrated by school situations which did not place priority on these skills.

Supervision/Observation

Despite criticism concerning the lack of practical, field based experiences for teacher education students, most undergraduate teacher education programs incorporate an extended student teaching experience in addition to earlier field based experiences. Students are regularly visited by university personnel who conduct pre and post-observation conferences with both student and cooperating teachers.

Research On Learning

While teacher educators are frequently criticized for their inadequate research skills they have nonetheless developed an impressive knowledge base in a short time. As noted by Harold Hodgkinson,

"No profession can be any better than its base of

Strengths In Teacher Education

The dialectic concerning teacher education has recently taken the form of a flood of critical reports on education, including those published by the National Commission on Excellence in Education and The Twentieth Century Fund. It is sometimes difficult to believe that the field does have a number of achievements to its credit. While it has become fashionable to dote on the failures of education and those who train educators, one should not overlook the accomplishments which still make the American system one of the most potent in the world. Naturally, there are identifiable areas in which teacher education must improve, and these will be discussed in this section.*

Computer Education/High Technology

American education is responding positively to the rapid development of high technology computers, once the exclusive domain of central office data analysts, are now finding their way into an increasing number of public school classrooms. Teachers have begun to upgrade their skills in the instructional applications of microcomputers, and their needs have not gone unnoticed by higher education. Microcomputer laboratories are now either a reality on many campuses or in planning stages. Curriculum development has proceeded well and the average education student now has access to computer coursework at all levels of study.

Teacher educators have gone beyond the microcomputer to examine other interactive technologies. During the rise of micro-teaching in the 1960's and 70's faculties became familiar with the use of educational television and videotapes. Now this knowledge has led to research and some instructional initiatives in laser videodiscs, robotics (especially with exceptional children) and electronic gaming. While much lies ahead, teacher education can be proud of the depth and speed with which it responded to developments in high technology.

Sensitivity to Non-Mainstream Populations

Largely due to efforts at the national level, teacher education has kept pace with the demographic changes experienced in the American schools. Four milestones - Public Law 94-142,

*The field of Teacher Education is defined broadly in this paper, and corresponds to the following NCATE reference: "The teacher education program refers to curriculum, teaching, learning, and supporting resources for the teaching and learning process. (NCATE Standards for the Accreditation of Teacher Education, Washington, D.C., 1982, p.43)."

Early Childhood Teacher Education

With the increase in the number of women in the workforce has come the corresponding need for increased day care and early childhood educational services. Teacher education programs began increasingly to respond to this developing condition two decades ago. Not coincidentally, Washington began to fund the Head Start program at the same time, carefully including provisions for longitudinal study of its successive groups of disadvantaged three and four-year olds. Head Start has proven to be successful, as the initial classes of youngsters have shown increased achievement, maturation and career-orientation as compared to control groups. Teacher educators have been involved with the project since its inception, and many of its successful features are now incorporated in training programs.

Areas For Improvement

As mentioned above, teacher education has recently been criticized through the publication of highly visible reports by the National Commission on Excellence and the Twentieth Century Fund. As a result, the opportunity exists for significant innovation, since problems placed under public scrutiny frequently are addressed through increased funding and additional programs. If this transpires, the following areas will most likely form the nucleus for improvement in teacher education.

Prestige/Morale

Teacher education has been cited for attracting students who are below average in academic achievement and standardized test scores. While the field must engage in more vigorous recruiting of quality pupils, the teaching profession suffers from general society disrespect. Students who might have chosen Education twenty years ago are rebuffed by the low salaries and esteem afforded public school instructors. The challenges presented by a society which demands results but refuses to supply resources seem unattractive to college students. The morale problem affects teacher education faculty as well; professors are increasingly questioning their commitment to a field which receives so little reinforcement and support.

Research On Effectiveness

SCDEs have been relatively unsuccessful in identifying specific curricular features which have been effective in the field. Longitudinal studies of graduates have not been implemented to any great extent, largely due to limitations on resources and faculty time. As a result, teacher educators are uncertain as to "what works." Further, criticisms referred to above concerning the lack of early field experiences are often accurate. In addition, pre-service students' first activities in public school classrooms are largely limited to observation.

knowledge. Other professions have enjoyed 100 years of steady federal support to develop the existing knowledge base. Educational research, however, has received only 20 years of consistent federal funding. Let us ask, though, how our knowledge base has developed in this brief span of 20 years. For one thing, a series of correlational studies has established the factors that tend to be present when learning occurs. These factors do not cause learning, but they are associated with it in a systematic way. They include:

- o social class;
- o race (less powerful than class);
- o sex (women superior in verbal areas, men superior in quantitative areas);
- o urban, rural, or suburban residence (related to class);
- o region (the Southwest, for example, is improving rapidly on tests of achievement);
- o birth order (oldest children tend to achieve at higher levels);
- o family size (small family equals greater learning);
- o prenatal and infant nutrition;
- o amount of activity shared with parents;
- o television (increases scores of children aged 3-8 but decreases teenagers' scores);
- o age (very small decline in ability to learn after age 30)" (Hodgkinson, 1982, p. 232-3).

Other notable achievements in research include information concerning learning rates. It is apparent that within a normal group of students, the learning rate varies by a factor of four. Further, differential abilities in classrooms can vary as much as three levels above or below the grade (example: students in third grade classroom can vary from first to sixth grade in abilities). Studies in the area of reading instruction have determined that successful programs are characterized by the use of local ideas which originated in each individual school; local school involvement in the decision-making process; the principal's leadership and support from community and superiors; and a critical mass of teachers who share attitudes and values. Finally, research has provided valuable data on the importance of the role of the school principal, the need for high expectations of students, and the advisability of frequent diagnostic evaluation of student progress. The information described in these studies has directly led to changes in teacher preparation programs (though, perhaps, not many as desirable) and the development of new instructional materials which have beneficially effected student performance. (Hodgkinson, 1982, p. 233)

Vitalizing the Teacher Education Curriculum

Even a cursory review of literature concerning teacher education indicates a checkered success story. There are obvious strengths in the present system, but there are also just as obvious weaknesses. Too many products of present teacher education programs are simply not successful when placed on their own. If teachers are not effective in the classroom, then it would logically follow that those institutions charged with the responsibility of training the teachers would need to be examined closely to discover why they are not producing effective teachers.

A number of voices have called for wholesale revision of teacher education programs. As early as 1977, Bush (1977), stated that "the time is ripe for some significant advances in teacher education." Advances that would include some new designs that will move teacher education significantly forward. Gideonse (1982, p. 15) recommends that a revolution in teacher education is what is needed to set schooling on the proper course and that nothing less will suffice. According to Goodlad, (1982, p. 19) the reconstruction of teacher education is long over due. In order to prepare the kind of teachers we need in the public schools, the structure of teacher education must change. (Spillane, 1982, p. 21) The vitalization of teacher education programs can no longer be accomplished in a haphazard or piece-meal fashion. Nothing less than a comprehensive, system-wide effort will suffice.

If the intent is to reconstruct teacher education programs, then it would first be necessary to delineate those components that ideally should be present to ensure a quality program. Bush (1977, p. 5-9) contends that teacher education institutions know how to train teachers, but a poor job is done of applying that skill and knowledge. Hence, teacher education programs are not as successful as they could be, and teachers are being sent out into the field who are less effective than possible. Bush outlines nine lessons that, if put into practice, could lead to quality teacher training, they are:

1. It takes time to prepare a teacher for a successful career in the classroom. Bush proposes that the two-year post baccalaureate model is superior to the traditional four-year plan.
2. Mass production of highly competent professionals is not possible, therefore small classes are imperative.
3. The importance of practice cannot be over-emphasized. Not just any kind of practice, rather practice in many different situations, with different age groups, observation of a variety of classrooms, and practice with individual children, small groups and whole classes with time to discuss what was observed or what took place.

and occasional tutoring. As a result, not only must prospective teachers wait until their senior year to engage in substantive classroom instruction, but their mentors do not have sufficient opportunities to field test techniques presented in methods courses.

This problem carries additional implications for the field of teacher education. Without significant study of curricular effectiveness it becomes difficult to decide on a series of necessary competencies for the beginning teacher. Evaluation becomes more difficult, completing the cycle of ambiguity. It behooves teacher educators to include validation segments in methods and student teaching curricula, thereby insuring continuing awareness of successful techniques.

Achievement/Competency Standards

While every teacher education student naturally must undergo the same screening procedures as other entering freshmen, there is some criticism as to the achievement levels necessary to begin the professional sequence. While programs differ in entry requirements, the notion that almost any college student can enter is widespread. Generally, students must have grade point averages and have satisfied certain course prerequisites. Due to the trend towards grade inflation in all college classes, there have been increasing demands made upon teacher education programs to require higher GPAs for admission to the program. In addition, given the discovery of low literacy skills among some teachers, teacher education programs are beginning to require a basic skills competency exam either for entry or exit.

Faculty Development

Teacher educators are often thought of as inactive, non-research oriented and out of touch with public school realities. While this image is both unfortunate and extreme, it does contain some truthful elements. While staleness is an obvious danger, faculty try to keep current through field-based supervision and in-service consulting. Nonetheless, they still suffer credibility questions, and the field needs to examine activities which will involve professors in public school activities to a greater extent and reward these activities.

As mentioned in a preceding section, teacher education faculty have not traditionally been known for their research skills (though there has been excellent progress made over the past twenty years). There is some concern for the rate at which the knowledge base of the field is expanding. However, due to the increasing emphasis on research/scholarship in promotion and tenure decisions, faculty will probably increasingly emphasize these skills. Other market forces, such as the availability of positions (which, naturally, are decreasing) will also tend to upgrade faculty research activity.

not be as strong in professional knowledge. Both of the above models would culminate in the acquisition of a baccalaureate degree.

3. Five-Year (B.A. plus Masters) - In this model the post baccalaureate study is more of a continuation of the previous four years.
4. Five-Plus-One-Year (Master's Degree Plus Internship) - This model is an extension of the five-year model with the sixth year consisting of an internship.
5. Four-Plus-Two-Years - The first four years in this model would include study in general education, teaching field preparation, and a pre-professional component. The entire professional sequence would be post baccalaureate allowing for extensive integration of the professional knowledge component and the clinical component.
6. Four-Plus-Three-Years (Doctorate) - This model would be a step toward the full professionalization of the profession and it is consistent with the previous one in that the total professional sequence would be post-baccalaureate.

An additional model which deserves consideration is the traditional four-year program followed by a full year of successful teaching experience under the close supervision of teacher education personnel, a school administrator and a teaching colleague, followed by a fifth year of study in professional education, to be completed in a specified period of time.

Each of the previously discussed models is a genuine attempt to revitalize teacher education, hence an attempt to revitalize public education. Serious consideration should be given to these alternatives which contains the basic recommendation for an extended program. There seems to be general agreement in some quarters that the traditional four-year plan has not been adequate in the preparation of effective teachers. It also appears that Bush is realistic when he says that colleges and universities know how to train teachers, but they are not doing it very well.

One must realize that teacher education models or recommendations for a quality program that are not implemented will not effect the conditions that exist.

4. Teacher training must be a cooperative effort between the schools and the university.
5. Preservice and inservice have much in common and they are both best accomplished when done together.
6. There is a need to be well grounded in the humanistic studies and behavioral sciences which are the underpinning of educational practice.
7. Teachers must have a sound, liberal or general education and be fully prepared in the subject area they intend to teach.
8. Teachers have individual differences and even though there are certain common standards of competence, there are many routes to achieve the competence.
9. A quality teacher training program requires money in order to attract and train able people to teach well.

With the recommendations of Bush in mind it would then be necessary to look at some models that would incorporate these ideas. Gideonse (1982, p. 15-18) lends support to this contention when he outlined the components of what he calls a revolutionary program that would revitalize teacher education. Gideonse recommends a six-year model with the four-year baccalaureate program including the general education component, with mastery in the content areas to be taught, and a limited set of courses that would include some introduction to the teaching profession and firsthand experience in the schools. This exposure to the profession would begin at the junior year. The professional education sequence would begin post baccalaureate and would take two full years to complete. The entire range of professional education would be studied in much more detail than is now possible with the traditional four year model. The final step in this six-year plan would be an intensive internship which would include more supervision and feedback than is available to teacher trainees today. Gideonse warns that this program is still minimal and some attempt must be made to ensure the continuing development of the teacher. Minimal though it is, this extended program is much more realistic than the traditional limited four year teacher education programs now in effect.

Advocation of the extended program has been supported by others including the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education assembled a task force to consider alternate models for teacher education (ed. Jones, 1982, p. 43-59). The task force came up with six models of extended programs and following is a short description of each of the plans.

1. Four-Plus-One (B.A.) - This plan follows the typical four-year teacher preparation program, but is extended one year which would be a year of professional studies and practicum or internship.
2. Four-Plus-One (Internship) - Again, this model resembles the typical four-year program, but the fifth year is an internship, which allows for much more clinical experience than the first model, but would

The practice of competency testing has no doubt eliminated some persons from the profession and will continue to do so, but this is a desirable goal if the intent is to certify only those persons who are competent in their respective fields. The practice of competency testing will cause those individuals contemplating teaching as a profession to take the decision more seriously than before. The curriculum exam brings with it the assurance that only those persons competent in their subject fields will be allowed the responsibility of educating the youth in the state.

The examination has another possible advantage in that the decision was made to release the pass fail statistics of each individual institution broken down into each of the subject areas. As the test is administered to a larger number of students in the universities, patterns of strengths and weakness will emerge. An additional outcome of releasing test results is that comparisons can be made from program to program at different institutions. It would be desirable for each individual college or university to study these results and make adjustments accordingly within the program.

The third and most unique aspect of House Bill 1706 is the establishment of an Entry-Year Assistance Program for the teacher neophyte. Oklahoma is the first state to offer an extended program to first-year teachers, and this is a tremendous step ahead for teacher education. This action confirms the belief that, at best, the traditional design of teacher education programs prepare teachers minimally for the classroom.

Upon graduation from a college or university the beginning teacher is no longer certified; rather, a one-year license is granted which is renewable for one additional year. This practice takes the responsibility of certification out of the hands of the institutions of higher learning. The license allows the teacher to obtain a teaching position and to be paid a regular salary. The new teacher will work for one year under the guidance of an entry-year committee consisting of a consulting teacher (a regular classroom teacher ideally with experience in the same area as the entry-year teacher), an administrator (usually the building principal or assistant principal), and an instructor from an institution of higher learning. Each committee member is required to make a designated number of visits to observe the entry-year teacher, to offer support and recommendations, and ultimately to decide if the entry-year teacher is sufficiently prepared for certification or if a second year of assistance is needed. In the event that the new teacher has not attained the level of proficiency deemed necessary by a majority of the members of the committee, the committee will deny certification and recommend renewal of the license. If after the second year of assistance the candidate does not attain teaching competency, he/she is eliminated from the possibility certification in

Discussion will now focus on an extended program that has been implemented in the state of Oklahoma as a part of a comprehensive piece of state legislation which attempts to upgrade education in the state. House Bill 1706 includes many of the components mentioned in the preceding discussion and is comprehensive in that it addresses all aspects of teacher preparation and continued professional development. Those aspects of the bill that affect teacher education are worthy of special note.

The Oklahoma plan addresses four major concepts in teacher education:

- "1. Strengthening the screening requirements of college student applicants for admission into college and university teacher education programs;
 2. Testing teachers in their curriculum field;
 3. Development of an Entry-Year Assistance Program for beginning teachers; and
 4. Staff Development programs in all school districts."
- (Policies & Procedures Handbook for House Bill 1706, p. 1)

The Oklahoma legislature, cognizant of the recent criticism of many of the present teachers' inability to communicate effectively, has mandated that before persons may enter teacher education programs, they must demonstrate competency in the oral and written use of the English language and that they must demonstrate a high level of mastery in the general education component. Those students who seek entrance into the teacher education program are no longer allowed into the program based on grade point average alone. House Bill 1706 calls for careful review of each candidate through an interview committee, at which time the student is carefully reviewed on several dimensions.

In addition, a simple desire to teach is no longer an adequate reason to be admitted into the program. With the recent added concern for early field experience, teacher candidates must provide evidence of having worked with children or youth in a variety of situations. An additional aspect of the bill is an increase in preservice and clinical field experiences. It is the intent of the state legislature to graduate quality teachers who are firmly committed to teaching by imposing these added criteria.

The second component of the bill is competency testing which has become a major item of debate in recent years as more and more states are adopting this controversial practice. The concern over the lack of knowledge that teachers have in their subject fields compelled the state department to include a component in the bill requiring that before licensure each prospective teacher must take a subject area examination in any area in which certification is desired. The intent of the test is to ensure knowledge in content, it does not deal with pedagogy.

The fourth concept of House Bill 1706, staff development, while certainly not unique for public school faculty is now also required for professors of education. Now both groups, not just the public school faction, must demonstrate evidence of continued education through participation in workshops, conferences, travel, exchange programs, additional course work, and any other activities that enhance life long learning in the profession. In addition, due to continued criticism that instructors in education lose touch with the real world of public schools, all higher education faculty members involved in teacher education must show evidence of working in public schools in some capacity appropriate to their work for the equivalence of ten days every five years.

Although the preparation of teachers is a key issue in improving schools and what happens within them, it is only one part of the total "system". As mentioned earlier, Goodlad indicated that teachers arrive in schools with certain values which, for some reason, they do not act on. The Entry Year Assistance Program is a step toward encouraging, assisting, and, perhaps, compelling beginning teachers to apply to their classrooms what they have learned in their program of preparation. However, the school environment and learning outcomes can only change if administrators, school board members and the general public are supportive of change.



Summary

In spite of the divergent approaches and radical suggestions emanating from some quarters, broad areas of agreement do exist and can be readily identified. The question to be resolved then is why all the debate over teacher education if areas of consensus exist on such a broad scope? This brings one back to the means and ends questions. There is a great deal of disagreement among people supporting a particular paradigm relative to how the various components will be implemental and to what degree. There is also disagreement among persons supporting different paradigms for teacher education relative to the implementation of the various components designed to produce a desired product. It is becoming increasingly evident that before significantly lasting improvements can be effected, consensus has to be reached on a number of points:

1. Consensus must be reached on minimally acceptable entry level characteristics that candidates for teacher preparation programs must possess (screening into the program).
2. Consensus must also be reached on the knowledge, skills, and attitudes that should be exemplified by the graduate of teacher preparation programs (product assessment).
3. Consensus must be reached on the program content required to bring prospective teachers to a safe to practice level.
4. Consensus must be reached on the role and responsibilities of institutions of higher education and public schools which serve as laboratories in the teacher education process.
5. Consensus must be reached on a minimally effective certification process which will insure that every entering professional is able to function on a safe to practice level.
6. Consensus must be reached on an effective quality control process to insure teacher preparation programs meet realistic standards on a continuing basis.
7. Finally, consensus must be reached on a process that will insure that in-service teachers will continue to upgrade skills and knowledge over the entire span of the professional life.

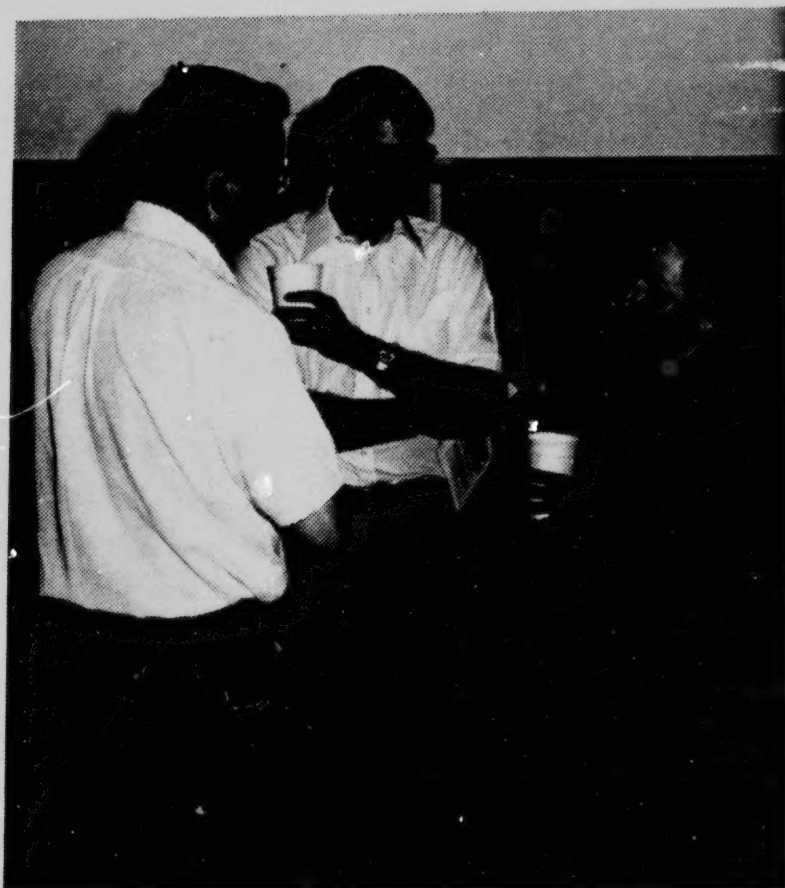
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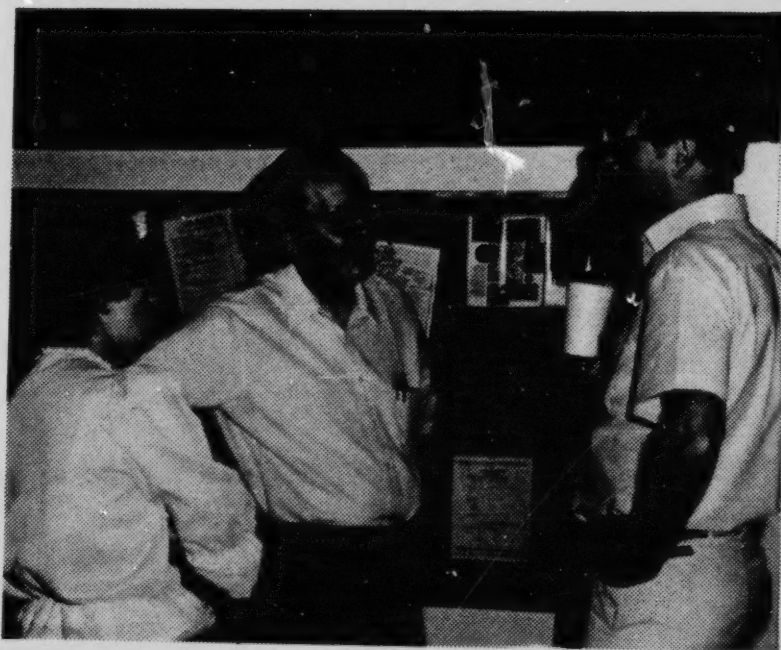
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GROUP III

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CHAPTER V

A NEW IMPERATIVE: PROFESSIONAL AND PERSONAL GROWTH OPPORTUNITIES FOR TEACHER EDUCATION FACULTY

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Introduction

This study surveys recent literature in the field of faculty development and special attention is paid to institutions of teacher education. Since teacher education professors are integral parts of total campus forms of governance, the discussion extends to factors broader than schools/colleges/departments of education. The first section traces the impact of society and of its shifting emphases on university and college campuses. The need for teacher education professors to remain credibly current in their field is the center of attention in the second section. Individual growth needs form part of this consideration. The study concludes with a discussion of models for faculty growth and development drawn from the literature.

Most institutions today stand in need of the development of programs which will foster and support the continuing personal and professional growth of their faculty within the context of changing institutions. It is hoped that the tentative ideas and guidelines that emerge will be of assistance to schools/colleges/departments of education which are contemplating their own faculty and institutional needs.

Factors Influencing Professional Development Programs

Higher education, as part of Society's education system, does not exist in a vacuum. Events, developments, changes within society eventually exert pressures on its institutions. The more central to the well-being of Society, the greater the impact will be on the institution. The W. K. Kellogg Foundation, in reassessing its support program to meet the needs of a changing society, found a widespread feeling that institutions of higher education, along with other mainstream institutions, have lost touch and no longer provide the support and guidance required by today's society (Elser, 1982).

The world and its societies are caught up in a period of rapid, and at times, violent change. In the view of futurist Alvin Toffler (1980), we are moving rapidly from the comfort of our industrial civilization toward a new one which is in large measure undefined at this time. The change stresses which are boiling within society are being telegraphed into the core of its institutions. Sociologists and politicians alike lament the breakdown of the family, the lessening influence of the church, and the ineffective efforts of our schools in preparing young men and women to carry forward the current form of participative democracy. At the same time, technological advances and the knowledge explosion place new demands on social institutions.

The fifties and sixties were prosperous years which allowed Society to develop an introspective nature. As various societal ills were spotlighted, institutions were designated to assist with correcting them. The educational institution was asked to develop equality of educational opportunity, particularly in the public school sector. More high school graduates entered colleges and universities as barriers dropped and children of the post-war "baby boom" reached college age. The sixties brought rapid growth to higher education. Federal, state, and private funds were channeled into colleges and universities at unprecedented rates. In the face of burgeoning enrollment and increased funding, higher education scrambled to secure additional faculty, build new facilities, and broaden the curriculum.

The seventies brought inflation and disillusionment. The nation's disastrous involvement in Vietnam came to an end as scandal at the highest levels of government became apparent. It was in this climate that the populace was provided with evidence that graduates of its educational institutions were functionally illiterate in too many instances. The effect of these negative events on the education system can be traced. Lack of confidence in schools, teachers, and the institutions that prepare the teachers has resulted. Loss of confidence

and inflation are two factors which have caused higher education to look inward in an attempt to halt erosion of the institution.

Niebuhr (1982) puts forth major components which, in his judgment, contribute to the problems faced by higher education today. The first is demographic and stems from the drop in the number of eighteen-year-olds from now until the end of the century. The national decline is projected to be approximately twenty-five percent with the Northeast, Middle Atlantic, and Midwestern states experiencing a decline as large as forty percent.

The second component cited by Niebuhr is one of the resources. Inflation coupled with the decline of public support from state and Federal agencies has eaten into the financial base of higher education institutions. The situation is compounded by loss of tuition revenues resulting from decreased enrollments. The financial press has led to cuts in faculty and staff. Retrenchment, causing lack of mobility among professors, has restricted the number of vibrant young professors entering academe. (There will be fuller discussion of this problem at a later point.)

Niebuhr's third component is competition. Higher education no longer has a monopoly on the post secondary education market. Colleges and universities serve approximately twelve million students while approximately forty-six million adults get their education through other institutions. Corporate- and government-sponsored educational activities have moved to fill the gap that higher education left by refusing to become involved in the non-degree training needs of business and government.

The fourth and final of the components which Niebuhr sees contributing to the problems of higher education is the matter of legitimacy. "Every institution dependent on the larger society for esteem, reputation, and support must be perceived as doing what needs to be done (Niebuhr, 1982 p. 17)." It seems clear that the larger society is not confident that higher education is doing what needs to be done.

The problem of academic job mobility is a serious one. Recent statistics indicate virtually no growth in faculty employment through the year 2000. Supply is expected to exceed demand by over thirty-six percent by 1986 (Shulman, 1979). This glut has been produced by the increased number of doctorates awarded and retrenchment. As faculties become more placebound, tenure ratios increase. Vitality and fresh approaches, once infused by new faculty members, are now absent. A 1978 survey of four-year colleges indicated fifty percent of the faculty had tenure (Shulman, 1979, citing

Radner and Kuh). The percentage of tenured faculty has now moved far beyond that as the mid-eighties approach.

Reports of the age profile of faculty show that the vast majority are in their mid-thirties to mid-forties, reflecting the expansion of hiring during the past fifteen years. With a 1978 study citing only seventeen percent of faculty in the fifty-five and older age group, little attrition through retirement can be expected (Shulman, 1979, citing Ladd and Lipset). The bulge of faculty between thirty-three and forty-seven will be with us well into the first decade of the twenty-first century. "By the year 2000, the Carnegie Council estimates that the modal age of tenured faculty will be 56 to 65.... (Chait and Gueth, 1981, p. 30, citing the Carnegie Council on Policy Studies in Higher Education)." Considering these facts it becomes apparent that professional development programs are not only desirable but necessary to the viability of higher education.

The foregoing discussion has focussed on problems confronting higher education in general as a result of societal changes. Earlier in the paper reference was made to erosion of the public's confidence in the total education system, including schools, the teaching profession, and the institutions which prepare teachers. This means that in addition to the pressures being experienced by higher education in general, schools/colleges/departments of education are receiving the brunt of additional pressures as the preparation unit for teachers. In other words, as the practice of teaching professionals comes under fire so does the institution responsible for preparing the teachers. Pressures being exerted on teachers seem to flow mainly from four sources: the public's press for accountability; expansion of knowledge, both academic and pedagogical; new technology; and legislative action. News of the educational shortcomings of high school graduates caused a public outcry for accountability on the part of teachers.

Society has charged teachers with the responsibility of insuring the learning of its youth -- equipping them to be productive, reasoning, compassionate citizens. This means that teachers must find ways to keep current in terms of new knowledge in academic areas for which they are responsible and new knowledge which impinges on teaching and learning. Only then can teachers be truly accountable.

At the same time, teachers must understand the implications of new technology for the youngsters they teach. If these students are to be productive, reasoning individuals within a high-tech society, they must acquire knowledge and skills in areas of new technology as well as in the more traditional curricular areas. Societal concern for the

educational welfare of all youth has resulted in legislative actions such as P.L. 94-142 which mandates that exceptional individuals be educated in the least restrictive environment. This law increased the need for classroom teachers to be prepared to diagnose and prescribe instruction for a wider range of abilities than ever before.

In light of the giant leaps in technology and the knowledge explosion of the past decade, it is apparent that higher education, schools/colleges/departments of education in particular, must shoulder responsibility for assisting teachers to meet with intelligent action the demands placed on them by society. Faculty development programs will become more important to higher education as colleges and universities strive to meet the current crisis in society's education system. As Trachtenberg (1983, p. 329) notes, "...the word crisis, in Greek, can also mean opportunity. If universities are indeed necessary to our society, then the present 'crisis' is one of adaptation rather than survival -- and adaptations, as usual, are under way right now."

The Need for Change

The need for higher education to respond to societal demands for change has been stressed in the first section of this paper. An exploration of the faculty and institutional responses to those demands follows. A growing literature is developing around faculty development but little of it is based upon strictly controlled research data. It may never be possible to do so.

Focus for Faculty Development

Effective faculty development must be situation- and need-specific. To work effectively it had best grow on-site and be developed by those who know its possible growth points. In a paper presented to the National Council of States on Inservice Education, Baden (1982) states the theme that schools/colleges/departments of education should find their purpose in improving the quality of education in the geographical area in which they are located. He stresses the need to blend a university's three major functions of teaching, research and service. Baden maintains that any narrowing of this triple focus to stress research or teaching diverts the institution from its duty to serve local education. Baden recommends the assignment to faculty of 'Professional Service Units' (40 hours service on school sites to equate with a 3 unit teaching load).

Faculty on University and College Campuses Need Renewal Programs

Universities should respond to Society's expectations even if only for the reason that Society created these institutions and supports them financially. There is an even more compelling reason for responses by schools/colleges/departments of education. Many faculty are jaded, their classes have stagnated and their professional efforts miss the mark of the current needs of their students. How has this come about?

Shulman (1979) takes an historical perspective in considering this question. She sees faculty caught up in large scale institutional and social movements. From the late 1950's through the early 1970's professors gained status as increased enrollments and liberal federal funding elevated the demand for qualified faculty. This surge of the Sixties was followed by the slump of the Seventies as enrollments dropped and the nation's economy no longer matched its affluent aspirations. Throughout both eras the traditional focus of the university remained on research even though most of the faculty spent the larger part of their time teaching. Academic quality was guaranteed by peer judgment and by tenure. Higher education seeks to retain those same faculty priorities in the eighties. Such an emphasis ignores the loss of funding support for research. It also ignores student complaints about the irrelevance and poor quality of much of the teaching they receive. As management systems impact upon universities and as administrators gain greater control over faculty operations, one can only wonder if the tenure system itself may be in danger.

Shulman suggests reasons for faculty disillusionment and loss of vigor. In the past, tenure and employment mobility were the unique qualities of the higher education profession. Job mobility has now been lost and we are faced with the prediction that the years 1981 through 1986 will see an annual surplus of 2000 new doctorates. No increase in university hiring is seen before the turn of the century (Shulman, 1979, p. 3). Faculty tenure pivots around research and yet this preoccupation with just one of the three faculty functions seems strangely out of date. "This reward system is incongruent with the realities of academic life, where teaching is the major activity of most faculty, even at research-oriented institutions. Thus faculty continually experience dissonance in their careers; they are paid to teach, and many claim to derive their job satisfaction from this activity, but research is the activity that brings career rewards (Shulman, 1979, p. 3)." Faculty also feel a loss of autonomy as attacks on the "tenured in" system mount and stagnation results from the inability to hire faculty with

fresh ideas. Public and legislative attacks on education have reinforced the concern of many administrators to demonstrate a well managed and "accountable" operation. Baldwin (1982, p. 1) states, "In a labor intensive industry like higher education the character of work life has a direct impact on the vitality of the enterprise and quality of its services." As faculty see less opportunity to move their place of work and sense a loss of autonomy they tend to lower their aspirations and disengage somewhat from their work. The need for faculty development has never been greater than under the above influences as they have compounded upon each other. Faculty development in the schools/colleges/departments of education should meet the following needs:

1. Address the low morale and burn out problem as it affects a number of faculty members.
2. Provide up-to-date technological skills to existing faculty, e.g. how to apply the computer to school classrooms.
3. Allocate funds to enable schools/colleges/departments of education to respond to the needs of the broader education community, e.g. assign faculty time to provide inservice on school sites.
4. Reward quality teaching by professors.
5. Allocate professional growth time for faculty to become familiar with the latest research findings and conceptual developments in their fields, e.g. effective teaching styles; development approaches to learning various subject matter such as mathematics, reading; brain function; new approaches to developing intelligence. To move toward better provision of staff development programs, it is essential that faculty and administration should both develop a clear picture of individual and institutional needs.

Addressing Institutional Needs

The downturn in individual faculty morale is related to higher education's institutional lack of response to Society's demands for more relevance. Centra (1978) points to a need to sharpen university teaching skills and knowledge, to help faculty to understand the role of their institutions and to foster environments more conducive to teaching and learning. The results of a 1975 survey which Centra mailed to 1044 coordinators of faculty development programs in higher education institutions indicated that awards for excellence were used on many campuses but were not viewed as effective in improving classroom teaching. The distribution of newsletters to faculty was perceived as also having little impact. The

most effective provisions in the views of the respondents were:

- a. summer grants for projects to improve instruction,
- b. sabbatical leaves, and
- c. travel grants.

The pressure to induce institutional change in a controlled way exists also in Britain. Eraut, Conners, and Hewton (1980) report the pressures as:

- 1. The size of the higher education enterprise is larger.
- 2. The financial pressure on resources requires more careful management.
- 3. More questions are being raised publicly about the adequacy of the curriculum and the way professors tend to "please themselves" in selecting course content.
- 4. Institutions have become more responsive to outside pressures as they have reviewed their purposes and social missions.
- 5. Students have become more insistent about what they believe they need.

Yet faculty development at a university is no easy matter. Resistance to outside interference or seeming invasions of academic freedom bring strong affective responses. Academics excel at converting such subjective responses into rationally argued principles about who should be determining what is important to teach. The constraints that deter many faculty development attempts are indeed formidable. Three chief constraints are discussed by Eraut, Conners and Hewton (1980, p. 2) and comprise authority, attitude and finance.

- 1. Authority. The focus of authority is a major restraint on large-scale faculty change. The authority inherent in a university's teaching role is derived from the professor's expert knowledge of a subject area. Such knowledge need not imply expertise in the communication process to students. The collegial authority of peers is thought to be pre-eminent, "So the diagnosis of a training need has to include a strong element of self-diagnosis that has never been easy" (Eraut, Conners, and Hewton, 1980, p. 2)." The writer of this paper wonders whether the mystique of faculty knowledge may have been impaired by three relatively recent impacts. Firstly, the knowledge explosion has faced professors with the choice of either (a) learning a great deal more about one, sometimes esoteric, area of specialization or, (b) developing a wider ranging but somewhat surface coverage of one's discipline. Secondly, the

proliferation of technology, often expensive to buy and to operate, has been in the hands of experts outside the higher education institutions. Most professors have not mastered the new learning and knowledge-processing technologies. Thirdly, the drop in enrollment and the dwindling funds to hire faculty has forced the use of established faculty in fields often hastily acquired. Some of these cross-over faculty are teaching in areas not closely related to their disciplinary training.

2. Attitude. The second constraint on faculty development is the traditional attitude that curricular changes or faculty growth are private matters. Thus no assignment of time is made to professors to encourage their participation in such activities.
3. Finance. Finance is the third constraint on faculty development programs. To allocate funds to programs would be to deplete the funds earmarked for research, libraries or clerical staff. Some colleges, of course, do not have funds earmarked for research either!

Although it is not listed as a constraint, the stance of colleagues may have a deleterious impact on change. "Many of those interviewed thought that the greatest constraints on their development was the attitude of their colleagues, particularly that of their senior colleagues (Eraut, Conners, and Hewton, 1980, p. 2)."

Motivating Faculty Renewal

Informal motivation may have a major impact on some faculty. Student interests and requests can lead to changes in classroom content. Peer example may lead to research involvement or to collaborative teaching activities. Semi-formal motivation may come from department chair or dean leadership in developing new programs or through teaching reassignments. Responsive chords may be struck as a result of attendance at workshops or meetings. More formalized support systems such as the provision of funds to attend conferences or to award sabbatical leaves can provide fresh motivation for growth. Such responses as the above are valuable but they may not reach the faculty who most need revitalization. Faculty growth is best if it is intrinsically motivated. The institution cannot in many instances, meet the demands now placed upon it by waiting for self-motivation to solve programmatic growth needs.

To have a good chance of success, institutional renewal programs must, however, take into account the individual needs of faculty members. Significant results will come only when individuals have "bought into" the system. At universities, and perhaps in other educational institutions too, it appears that effective programs grow from within.

McLaughlin and Marsh (1979) list factors which facilitate institutional motivation. These factors are that the program,

1. addresses the recipient's priority needs,
2. relieves community pressure on the institutions,
3. appears to be 'up to date',
4. produces colleague pressure that is encouraging,
5. is seen as offering an opportunity for professional growth.

The literature on university and college faculty development includes reference to the leadership roles that may facilitate such programs. Plough (1979) describes a four-year program for academic leadership as a strategy for institutional renewal. The program was located at the Rochester Institute of Technology and was run successfully with 100 chairpersons participating. The program was based on three assumptions:

1. The department chairperson can be a primary filter affecting academic change and climate improvement.
2. That specific programs need to be developed within an institution.
3. Academic leadership training is more appropriate to the university campus than is management training.

Plough asserts that the program on which he reports demonstrated that academic leaders need affirmation and mentorship and that their institutions rarely provide for these support items. Nor do institutions of higher education provide time to think and to discuss issues of substance within a group of academic leaders.

In a report on a Kellogg Foundation sponsored program at the University of Akron, Buchtel and Ginzetta point out that universities are faced with a dilemma. "Having enshrined individual competition in the name of personal achievement, the university is largely paralyzed when confronted with collectively transforming a commonly shared sensitivity to social changes into a program of inquiry and action (Akron, Buchtel and Ginzetta, 1977, p. 1)."

The next section of this paper will outline some of the conceptual approaches to providing faculty development programs and will briefly discuss several models which show promise.

Approaches to Developing Faculty Growth Programs in Teacher Education Institutions

Professors have traditionally regarded themselves as quite autonomous in their discipline and teaching area. Low morale and burn out sometimes elicit defensive elements of this individualness. The positive side of autonomy is a set of strong values related to the integrity of the individual professor's professional activities. Under such a positive influence professors will keep current in their field, care about their students, and work collegially to achieve the goals of the institution. Job satisfaction or dissatisfaction may be the starting place for faculty development programs. Cicchelli and Mulkeen (1982) believe that institutions of higher education need to reallocate funds to support faculty growth plans. They also state that rewards should be provided for those who teach well and who provide service to their community. Cicchelli and Mulkeen recommend differentiated teaching loads to allow professors time to study and to plan revised curricula.

Individual faculty growth contracts, such as those referred to above, find their conceptual justification in the concepts of adult education theory. The adult professional with a high sense of self-esteem is one who has satisfied personal and role needs in appropriate ways. The qualities of such adults are described by Erikson (1968) as basic trust, autonomy, initiative, industry, identity, intimacy, generativity and integrity.

A number of models for faculty development have been conceptualized in recent years. Some samples are presented here. The selected models emphasize the importance of each professor owning a strong personal involvement in any growth program. The models also stress the need for encouraging individual choices in delineating each person's participation. Institutional support through encouragement and reward systems are thought to be essential. It may be necessary for the institution to modify its personnel policies and to alter the norms by which faculty growth has been traditionally judged.

The concerns of individual teachers are the basis of an approach developed by Hall and Loucks (1978) entitled the Concerns-Based Adoption Model (C-BAM). C-BAM was developed at the Research and Development Center for Teacher Education at the University of Texas at Austin. The model is based on the assumptions that:

1. Change is a process and not an event. Time is required to work it through.
2. The individual is the primary target.
3. Change is a highly personal experience.
4. Change occurs in stages rather than along a steady continuum.
5. Staff development is best facilitated by a "client-centered" diagnostic/prescriptive model.

Fleiman and Floden (1981) are critical of C-BAM as they feel individual growth into "higher" (more complex, autonomous, flexible) developmental stages may not necessarily translate into improved teaching behaviors. In criticizing the C-BAM model and also the "Deliberate Psychological Education" intervention model (which originates from the Department of Psychoeducational Studies at the University of Minnesota), Fleiman and Floden appear to be calling into doubt the "indirect" method of trying to bring about teaching changes. They prefer the behaviorist model of Berlinger and Rosenshine (1977). "Moreover there is a growing body of research on teaching that connects teacher effectiveness with a direct instructional model (Fleiman and Floden, 1981, p. 12)." It is conceded by Fleiman and Floden however that developmental approaches allow teachers to determine the starting point for their own growth. It would seem that the presentation of a direct instructional model would likely lead to rejection of a ready-made solution on a university campus. Professors are apt to insist on developing their own model in their own good time. An indirect approach to the problem of stimulating faculty growth may be more effective in the long run. The problem of inducing faculty renewal would appear to be a matter of creating personal commitment to individual, group, or institutional change.

Chait and Gueths (1981) contend that the introduction of professional development programs require some exercise of power. They endorse the concept of "normative" power, as defined by Etzioni (1961). This concept involves the allocation of symbolic as well as real rewards. Examples would be: esteem, prestige, and positive acceptance by peers and leaders. Such acceptance influences the social norms of the organization and provides a reasonable means to influence faculty behavior. "Institutions should strive . . . to establish a faculty development program that alters organizational norms and cultivates faculty development as a desirable, rather than merely acceptable activity (Chait and Gueths, 1981, p. 21)."

With this view of power as background, Chait and Gueths present six design criteria for faculty development programs. First, professional roles and activities should be the focus of professional growth programs. Chait and Gueths point out that care must be taken not to concentrate on the individual in a sense of "improvement" as this implies that the professor needs a

remedial program. Such a remedial focus tends to alienate higher education faculty who often do not feel they need remediation. The option is to build on individual strengths and traditional activity patterns such as teaching, research and service.

Chait and Gueth's second criterion stresses the need for the program to have a developmental approach and a constructive rationale. What is to be done with faculty who choose not to participate in such programs? It is at this point that Etzioni's concept of normative power moves into play. Participants must be encouraged and rewarded in such a way as to change the institutional norms over a period of time. Third, tangential, sporadic programs will not suffice. The professional development program must be clearly identifiable. It must be central to the institution and clearly supported by upper-echelon administration. The commitment of sufficient resources is of great value in establishing the importance of a faculty development program. Faculty-centered rather than administrative-directed development programs is the fourth criterion. Fifth, the program should be structured campus-wide to provide for adequate resources and cooperative professional growth activities. The sixth criterion requires that the reward system should include intrinsic and extrinsic or economic and non-economic rewards. These rewards provide individual motivation and promote normative change. "The key consideration may be less what the reward costs the university and more how much the recipient values it (Chait and Gueths, 1981, p. 33)."

Another model for programmatic development is drawn from social learning theory. Bare (1981) advocates a model of individual development process which stresses the need for collegial and institutional support. Bare's assumptions are that individual learning is enhanced when the learner acquires:

1. an assessment of the adequacy of present behavior,
2. a different, possibly new, model of potentially useful behavior,
3. a specific learning plan or behavior change goal,
4. institutional incentives which are supportive of changed behavior,
5. guided practice and reinforcement of emerging skills,
6. opportunities to generalize the newly-developed skills to additional situations.

A major concern of Bare's is that the currently predominant model of faculty development in higher education appears to be the "classroom training" model. The main criticism of such an approach is that there is no evidence that sitting professors down in a room and talking to them leads to improvements in organizational outcomes.

Joyce and Showers (1982) report on a procedure used in secondary schools which appears to hold promise for higher education faculty who are attempting to improve instructional effectiveness. A mutual support program is recommended and features the technique known as "coaching." Joyce and Showers maintain that teachers use of the coaching model virtually insures success.

The elements of the procedure include:

1. Study of the theoretical basis or rationale of the instructional method.
2. Observation of demonstrations by persons who are relatively expert in the model.
3. Practice and feedback in protected situations.
4. Coaching one another as work progresses toward making the new model part of the teacher's repertoire, providing companionship, figuring out the optimal uses of the model in their classes and providing one another with ideas and feedback.

The key to the success of the model is an environment in which all faculty members see themselves as one another's coaches. The strength of the program lies in the support which is provided for individuals seeking to change their own teaching behaviors.

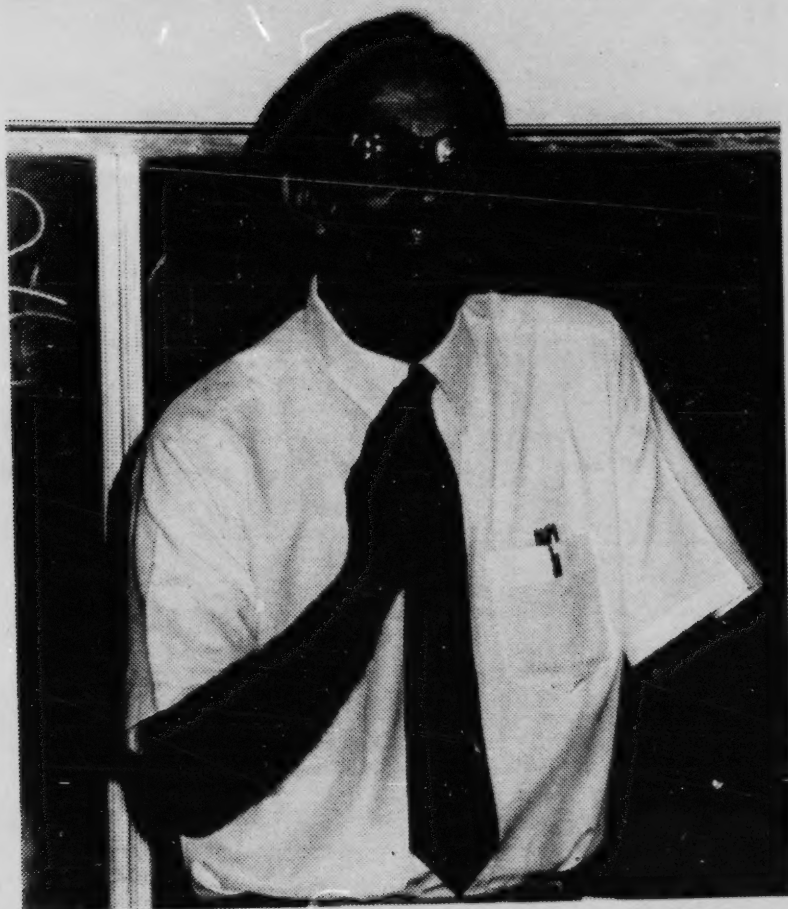
Organization Change

Baldrige and Deal (1983) point out that in recent years there have been major changes in the theories of dynamic organizational change. Shifts have occurred in the kinds of factors that cause change, including:

1. A shift has occurred from inside to outside pressure for change in educational institutions. The stronger drive today is external pressure to make institutions efficient in their use of public funds and accountable for their product.
2. Incentives have shifted from voluntary improvements to mandatory requirements. Examples are court-ordered desegregation, state mandates for competency testing of teachers and students and federal requirements such as P.L. 92-142 mainstreaming law.
3. Response to growth has changed. Under financial pressure administrators now seek to detect and eliminate weak programs whereas formerly they supported the development of new programs and the attracting of new student clientele.

Change theorists have lost their confidence in earlier highly rational planning modes with their agreed upon goals and clearcut objectives. Such planning just hasn't worked. Individuals and





groups diverted to where they recognized their own best growth interests.

Baldrige and Deal claim that the keys to change today are:

1. There are no substitutes for open-minded reflection on past experiences and for building on those experiences.
2. Organizations are subsystems with parts that are loose-coupled. The parts will operate quasi-independently, especially in higher education.
3. Reorganization tends to rekindle hope and encourages the belief that things will improve. It also allows fresh individual linkages and can help to disassemble some groupings that are proving unproductive.
4. The environment around a college or university is, "The most powerful source of change (Baldrige and Deal, 1981, p. 8)." However higher education institutions are "open" institutions and their relationship with their environment is highly complex.

Society's Expectations for Its Institutions

Institutions must change more rapidly as the pace of technological and social change intensifies. It is to be hoped that university and college professors of education will pay special attention to the implications of these changes. If Toffler (1980) is correct, future literacy will depend more on computers than on reading. Academic success will depend on technologically handling a plethora of information. Naisbitt's (1982) study of recent trends, projects those megatrends into the future. They have implications for teacher education. Some of the trends whose impact will require our special attention are reflected in his chapter titles:

<u>From</u>	<u>To</u>
Industrial Society	Information Society
Forced Technology	High Tech/High Touch
National Economy	World Economy
Short Term	Long Term
Centralization	Decentralization
Institutional Help	Self Help
Representative Democracy	Participatory Democracy
Hierarchies	Networking
North	South
Either/Or	Multiple Option

Etzioni wants major changes in education. He states (Etzioni, 1983, p. 135) "The problem is not that millions of high school graduates have great difficulties in reading, writing and arithmetic; these all-too-common deficiencies are consequences of insufficient self-organization, of inadequate

ability to mobilize self and to commit." Etzioni sees the answer in regarding the school as a total organizational structure which facilitates disciplined behavior and trains self-discipline. The consequence is that academic work gets done. Once again, professors need to spend time considering the implications of such proposals. The direct input of Society into teacher education is addressed in a recent report from the Chancellor's Office of the California State University system. Morey (1983, p. 49) reports that the specific implications of present social change on teacher education are several:

1. Evaluation of the innovations in mainstreaming is required if the handicapped are to be integrated with the rest of society.
2. Individuals with expertise in education must exert leadership to shape future laws and policies regarding the preparation of school personnel.
3. Instructors must understand the purposes, functions and potentialities of their institutions within the social context.

McLaughlin (1978) speaks of the links of staff development to Society's demands. One reason for the new status of staff development is the recognition that many of the "Great Society" education reform efforts fell short primarily because planners seriously underestimated teacher training needs. In retrospect, it was unrealistic to expect that classroom teachers could bring about significant change in the services provided. We have learned that the problem of reform or change is more a function of people and organizations than of technology.

School District Collaboration

Changing social demands have resulted in an expectation that universities and colleges will perform their duty in enriching the work of public schools. Morey (1983, p. 35) states "There is a growing acceptance that the State Department of Education, district and county offices, regional resource agencies, colleges and universities and other educational institutions must establish a training and technical assistance resource system to support local school site efforts." A nation-wide move seems to have occurred to locate a number of university and college inservice programs to school sites. As professors work with a group of teachers on their own geographical territory there are added needs to adapt the content more to teacher needs (Edefelt, 1977). Professors also seem to seek to project an image of a facilitator of learning rather than of an instructing professor.

The next step in forging linkages between school districts and higher education institutions is to plan joint attacks in specific and mutually relevant areas. Special funding, such as Teacher Corps, enriched these activities but few such grants are

now available; and they are not applicable to suburbia and its specific educational problems. The literature reports a number of collaborative programs. It also points up some of the difficulties that occur as institutions with different foci and authoritarian control systems seek to pursue a common purpose. Intriligator (1982) indicates some of the adjustments that were needed in a program in Maryland. She points out that as finances are short, collaborative efforts rely upon contributions of facilities and professional time. Different values about research-based and experience-based knowledge became evident between university and school district personnel. These differences were evident in course content, dissertation research foci, and in commitment to field-based programs.

It is interesting to note priorities reflected in programs in which funds are more readily available. A case in point is the Teacher Corps project involving the Central State University of Oklahoma School of Education and the Edmond School District in Oklahoma. Funds were used for (Westerman, 1982):

1. Eighteen participants to attend a total of eleven workshops. Topics included, working relationships between the participants, developing training packages, discipline, multicultural, field-based teacher education, teacher competencies, computer use, modes of teaching and supervision.
2. Ninety-three trips to out-of-town workshops and conferences.
3. Meetings for fifteen committees.
4. Three evaluation studies.
5. Teaching forty-five new courses and workshops.

Questionnaire Survey: Faculty Development Needs

A questionnaire was developed to gather the opinions of representatives of the 13 colleges and universities represented at a workshop on teacher education offered in the summer of 1983 by the North Central Association and the AACTE. The questionnaire may be obtained from Dr. Shirley Haworth or Dr. John McLevie.

The number of full-time faculty employed by the teacher education programs represented at the workshop ranged from three faculty members at a small private college to 180 at a large mid-western state university. Five of the units were larger than 50 with only one over 65.

The questionnaire surveyed Needs and Problems in 16 items. Respondents were invited to add needs or problems not identified by the questionnaire. Responses were given on a five point scale. The categories were: (1) major need/problem, (2) considerable need/problem, (3) some need/slight problem, (4) no need/problem, (5) not able to make a judgment (the five scores

were not included in the calculations). The summary listed below was discussed with the respondents to confirm correct interpretation of responses.

Needs. The first item concerned the need for faculty to study research data applicable to classroom teaching. All respondents except two gave a 1 or 2 (major or considerable need) rating for this item and 50% felt it to be a major need. The average was 1.6.

A question to explore the need to retrain faculty to be current in their major teaching area brought a scattering of responses. It is assumed, as the item was rated at 2.4, it is not a major need although some specific examples may have been in the minds of some respondents.

The need to retrain into a new area was rated even lower (3.0), indicating that major changes in course provisions are not a key concern at this time. Nearly 70% (1.8) reported a considerable or major need for faculty to retrain in newly emerging skills or knowledge areas. Needs associated with obtaining grant money was not an area of particular concern (2.5). All respondents (2.0 average) felt there was at least some need to spend time in communicating with the broader educational community. Faculty collective bargaining procedures do not exist in most of the states surveyed. As a result there was little concern about adapting to that factor (3.7). Pressure on faculty to publish was at least a considerable need in six of the institutions. As teaching loads averaged 12 units almost across-the-board, it would seem that research is not firmly encouraged particularly nor perhaps is it deemed the top priority for the professors.

Additional needs listed by respondents were:

1. reading and writing across all areas of the curriculum,
2. faculty burn out/frustration/lack of motivation,
3. negative State attitudes to teacher education,
4. low salaries to hold faculty (a private college).

Problems. Lack of ability to hire new faculty for their fresh ideas did not seem a problem (2.5). As funds are universally short in these schools, it must be assumed that little hiring is occurring. It seems that newer faculty may not be regarded as an important source for new ideas.

Inadequate travel funds was a major or considerable problem in all the institutions surveyed except two. Competing demands on faculty time were explored by a battery of seven sub-items. The average teaching load is 12 units. Only one of the time demands was rated as a considerable or major problem (2.0), and that was time for research and publication. Other items ranged



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from 2.4 to 2.7 in this sub-section indicating that the problem was slight to considerable only. Within this range were faculty activities in teaching, committee work, spending time on school sites, self study to keep current in the teaching area and in general educational issues. As these activities are required of most faculty, the responses indicate apparent satisfaction with faculty use of their time except for research and publication activities.

Drastic reduction in the ability to fund workshops was rated as a considerable problem (2.0).

Additional problems listed were:

1. lack of alternatives,
2. administration does not recognize value in faculty growth,
3. isolation from other teacher education institutions,

Summary of Results. The items in which the greatest needs or problems were reported related to shortage of funds or to institutional lack of support for faculty development activities. Lack of money to send faculty to conferences (1.8) was one such area. Institutional inability or unwillingness to assign time for faculty growth appeared to be the factor behind two other items. These were a limited willingness to assign faculty time to study research data and to incorporate such data into coursework (1.6), and time for retraining into new skill areas received 1.8. Perhaps because of the apparent lack of institutional support for faculty growth, there was a sense of a general faculty unwillingness to change (1.8).

Summary of Faculty Development Needs

Any survey of faculty development programs has to be piecemeal. Research data for such activities is always likely to be difficult to develop. Successful models may be emulated but care must be taken as it seems that the programs which best "fit" the needs of a particular campus have been developed for that site. Teacher education differs somewhat from most of the other schools/colleges/departments on campus because an experience base school teaching is important to the professor who seeks to pass on the skills of teaching. It is vital that education faculty personally demonstrate a model for classroom teaching that adheres to the best pedagogic practice.

The key immediate needs for professional development among teacher education faculty include:

1. Demonstrating knowledge and skills that include the latest research findings on effective teaching.

2. Elucidating concepts recently developed around cognitive learning styles, brain functions and new approaches to fostering the growth of intelligence.
3. Translating the use of computer technology into the classroom.
4. Orienting faculty to ponder the needs of the future with at least some passing familiarity with Toffler (1980) and with Naisbitt's Megatrends (1982).

The following guidelines which reflect much of the foregoing discussion for faculty development, may be helpful for insitutions addressing the need for faculty renewal programs.

Guidelines for Developing Programs

1. Programs must be comprehensive and continuous. A comprehensive program is capable of making a more holistic and integrated impact on faculty.
2. Faculty development must be as important to the individuals as it is to the institution. Programs must focus on the teachers, their careers, their courses, and the students they teach.
3. Programs must be grounded in the most recent theory in human development, adult psychological development, teaching and learning.
4. Programs will not succeed unless they are supported by institutional policies in the areas of hiring, promotion, retention, tenure, salaries, workload, etc. Faculty will not participate in programs if such involvement does not allow them to move ahead in their institutions and their professions.
5. For significant and lasting change in a teacher to occur, his or her emotions and affections must be engaged.
6. Firm organizational structures are needed to assure faculty members that an ongoing institutional commitment for the enterprise exists.
7. Teaching and learning are individual but not solitary activities; they occur within a social context. The climate of the institution, the relationship between faculty, administrators, and students, and the policies and practices of the school affect the character of teaching and learning. The improvement of instruction requires attention to social and institutional factors as well as to individuals. It is important to work with whole departments, colleges, or units to improve the climate for teaching.

8. Faculty members will change when: (a) they are presented with alternative ways of behaving; (b) they believe that change is desirable; (c) they believe they are capable of change; (d) they receive non-threatening feedback; (e) they are praised, recognized, and rewarded for effectiveness and improvement.
9. Not every faculty member needs to be involved in any one program for it to be successful. A start should be made with the most interested faculty. Later those who initially were less enthusiastic can be encouraged to participate.
10. Soft monies may be used to initiate programs but costs should soon be absorbed by the institution as a regular budget item.
11. Faculty development programs ought to be headed by a person who is regarded as an effective teacher, who is knowledgeable about teaching and learning, or who has been a leader in innovative education.
12. The responsibility for professional development rests ultimately with each individual.



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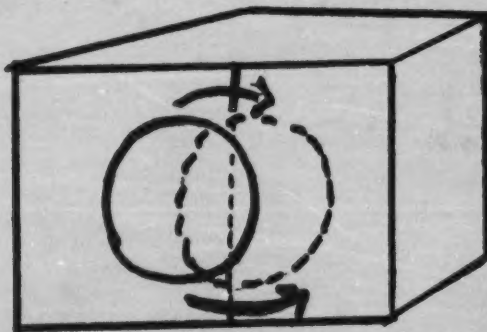
CHAPTER VI

THROUGH THE GLASS DARKLY: FROM REACTIVITY TO PROACTIVITY IN TEACHER EDUCATION

Maryann Ehle
Dennis Redburn
Gray Williamson
Louis Pollock

Reflecting Carolyn Warner's words (1983) that educators should either "Peep or get off the Perch," it has become apparent that much of the revitalization of education must come from within. Teachers, especially teacher educators, must adopt a proactive stance toward education. For too long, teacher education has been in a reactive mode, echoing the voices around it, and responding to various social, political, and economic influences. Sadly, the result has been a profession which has lost the source of its own voice.

The current dilemma confronting teacher education, the goals of the profession, and the environment in which it operates, can be summarized by the following model:



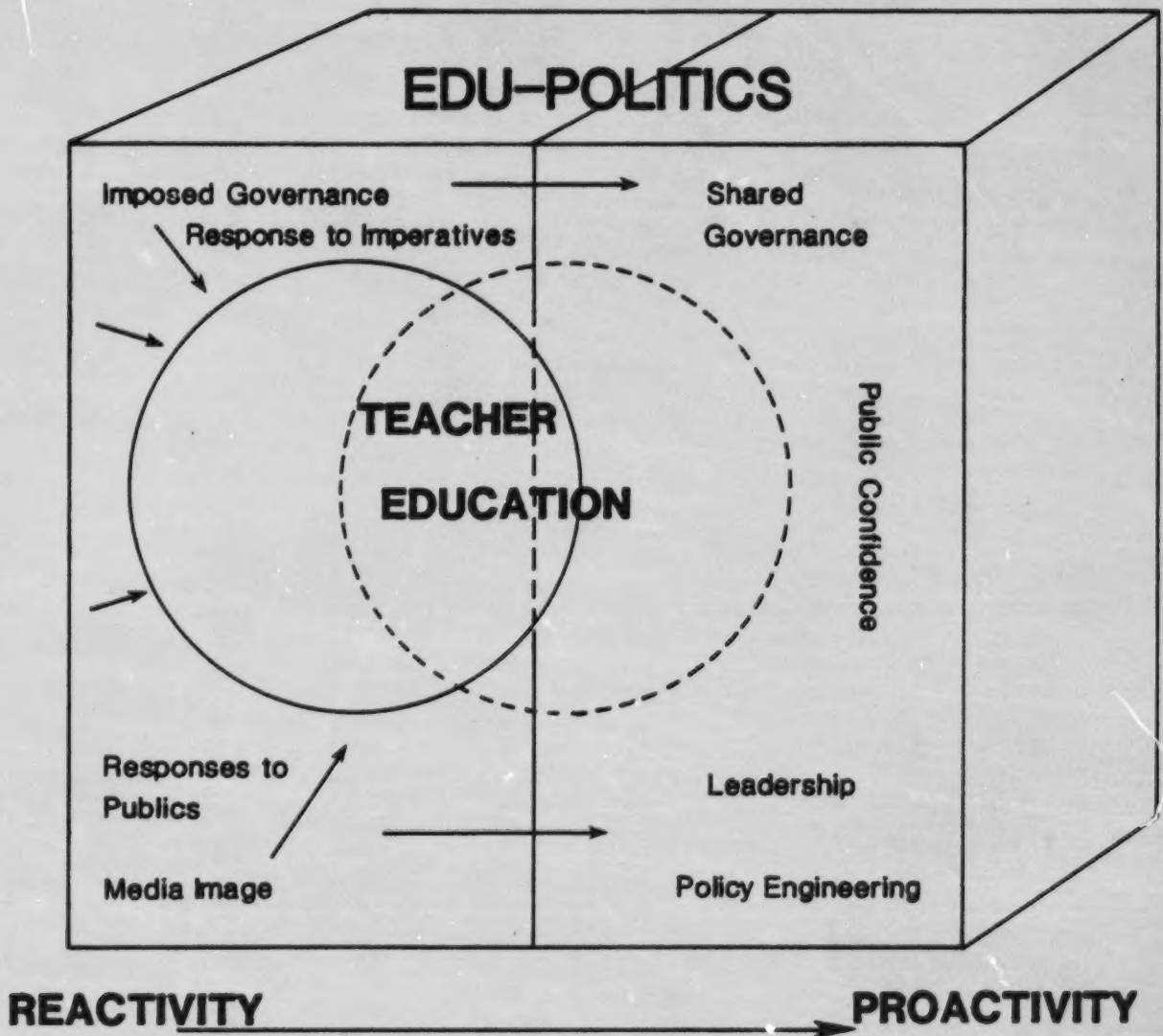
In its current reactive posture, teacher education is subject to imposed governance, must respond to imperatives, endure a loss of public confidence, and be portrayed unsympathetically by the media. By moving toward a more proactive posture, teacher education can achieve goals of harmonious, shared governance, assume leadership through policy engineering, promote its media image, and develop public confidence. These goals can be attained not only by proactivity but also by a knowledge of and sensitivity to the environment of edu-politics (the current phenomenon of education as a political issue) in which teacher education operates. In this paper the present writers will discuss four variations of the vitalization of teacher education--the dynamics of media image, governance, policy engineering, and edu-politics.



RESOURCE COMMITTEE

Worrest, Chance, Miller, Redburn, Mahoney

FROM REACTIVITY TO PROACTIVITY IN TEACHER EDUCATION



Education In The Spotlight: The Need For Image Advancement

An important first step for moving teacher education through the glass darkly to a brighter future is the development of a sensitivity and a response to its public image. Perhaps not since Sputnik was launched in 1957 (Time, 1980, p. 58) has so much public attention been focused on the schooling of our nation's students. Certainly the image of education appearing in the media has been less than positive. Headlines admonish the public that "Schools (are) Facing Collapse, Study Warns" (Arizona Republic, July 20, 1983). Popular journals tell us "Why Public Schools Are Flunking" (Williams and Coppola, 1981, p. 64) and "Help! Teacher Can't Teach" (Time, 1980, pp. 54-65). Even the recent report of the National Commission on Excellence in Education carried with it the inflammatory title A Nation at Risk (1983). It is appropriate, therefore, that educators in general, and those who prepare educators in particular, carefully head the image the public has of schooling. To what extent are teacher educators reflected in the public's current views of education? In its efforts toward revitalization, what responsibility does teacher education have toward improving its image?

For all the recent negative publicity, the "Good News", to borrow Fitch's phrase (Fitch, 1983), is that the public continues to be vitally interested in public education. The 1982 Gallup Poll on Education revealed that eighty percent of the respondents still equate education with success (Gallup, 1982). As in previous years, the public tends to give its own local schools better marks than to public schools in general (Gallup, p. 39). Nevertheless, the recent public interest in education reflects a grave concern and a lack of patience with an institution whose efficacy is currently in doubt. United States citizens, for example, believe that a high school diploma means little today and view school promotion practices with skepticism (Popham, 1981, p. 89). James S. Coleman's (1981) study of quality in American education, though it has sparked controversy about his claims for the superiority of private schools (Smith, 1981), has still provided grist for the mill of public education's critics. Furthermore, a most searing and often quoted indictment of public education recently has been published in A Nation at Risk (1983, p. 1), the report of the National Commission on Excellence in Education: "If an unfriendly power had attempted to impose on America the mediocre educational performance that exists today, we might have viewed it as an act of war". The conclusion certainly can be drawn that "The public schools, as an American institution, have an image problem" (Gallup, 1982, p. 39).

To what extent does the problem of public education image reflect on those who prepare public school teachers? Somewhat less direct evidence actually exists about the public's opinion of teacher educators.

The Gallup Poll (1982) asks no questions specifically about the quality of teacher education. A Nation at Risk, for all of its criticism of public education, makes few direct references to institutions which prepare educators. One comment in the report, however, is indicative of the accountability teacher educators must assume in the public's negative perception of schooling: "Persons preparing to teach should be required to . . . demonstrate competence . . . Colleges and universities offering teacher preparation programs should be judged by how well their graduates meet these criteria" (A Nation at Risk, 1983, p. 14). The extent to which the public has doubts about the ability of its school teachers is the degree to which teacher educators must understand that doubt is also cast on their ability to prepare those teachers. As Mortons and Yarger pointed out (1982, p. 8), popular articles, such as Time magazine's "Help! Teacher Can't Teach" (1980) brought a microscopic lens into focus on the purported inadequacies of classroom teachers and raised the question of how allegedly illiterate teachers are getting into classrooms.

Lyons (1980, p. 108) has addressed this question directly, labelling teacher education ". . . a massive fraud. It drives out dedicated people, rewards, incompetence, and wastes millions of dollars." Wisniewski, (1982, p. 2), has also challenged teacher education to accept its share of public criticism:

Each time a segment of the public criticizes school achievement levels, it is also lodging a complaint against those who prepare educational personnel. Despite decades of rationalization and avoidance behavior, there is no way of shirking accountability for the public education and the quality of public education on the part of teacher educators. The quality of public education and the quality of teacher preparation are irrevocably intertwined.

In terms of the appropriate role for teacher education within the total education enterprise, those who prepare educators must be willing not only to accept their share of public criticism for the current skeptical view of schooling but also to assume a share of responsibility for revitalizing the public image of education.

Such a challenge for teacher education is hardly new. Mortons and Yarger (1982) cite a long tradition of public challenges for reform of teacher preparation programs, including that by Sperry (1950) and by U.S. News and World Report: "Teaching of Teachers: A National Scandal". It is with a feeling of de ja vu that one reads the following account from two decades ago:

There is, to begin happily, a greater ferment throughout teacher education now than has been evident for a long time. There is more. . . criticism than ever before, more pressure for reform, more support for raising standards, more actual change (though small). . . . (Koerner, 1983, p. 15)

That such challenges for reform tarnished the image of teacher education in decades past should not lessen the impact of the current public scrutiny of teacher preparation and demands for strengthening programs. In the spirit of revitalization, it is imperative for teacher educators to become image conscious.

A necessary step toward image awareness is becoming sensitive to the pictures of education and, by association, teacher educators, presented by the media. Criscuolo (1981, pp. 16-18), in a discussion of education and the media, pointed out the tremendous impact on shaping public attitudes towards education which can be provided by the electronic and print media. Unfortunately, in comparison with other regular features such as syndicated columns on pet care, plants, beauty aids, "Dear Abby," "Dr. Joyce Brothers," et al., the number of regular columns devoted to education is minimal. Nevertheless, those articles devoted toward education are powerful because of a predominantly negative bent:

A survey of editorials concerning education in today's press will find that most editorials take a devastating posture towards teachers and the schools. Old, irascible editorial writers who haven't been inside a school in years thumb through their McGuffey readers, sigh, and yearn for a return to the "good old days" when everyone (?) learned how to read, write, and cipher. (Criscuolo, 1981, p. 17)

Articles which appear in the media may be accurate in a literal sense, but can be devastating in terms of public perceptions because of the implications--however inaccurate--which might be drawn from the story. Note the implications which could be concluded from the following stories which appeared nationally:

- A junior high school principal in San Diego devises a plan which pays students to come to school.
Implication: Bribery in order to increase school attendance.
- School districts institute plans to test teachers on their abilities to write, read and spell.
Stories of notes sent to parents by teachers with

grammatical errors and misspelled words are reprinted. Implication: Teachers are illiterate.

--A junior high school teacher in Maryland is suspended by the School Board because he used materials not prescribed in the curriculum to enrich learning for his gifted students. Implication: Sub-standard and "watered down" curricula are being used to teach today's bright students.

--A Florida school official is found to have misappropriated funds in authorizing builders to put in gold faucets and other "necessary fixtures" in a new school. Implication: Educators are crooks.

--A group of parents in Chicago stage a sit-in at the principal's office because they are upset over the poor showing their children made on achievement tests as evidenced by low test scores. They demand the ouster of the principal. Implication: Educators are insensitive to poor academic performance of children and fail to take the steps necessary for improvement. (Criscuola, 1981, p. 16)

There are those who believe that the problem of damaging implications in the media can be improved if educators become more public relations conscious. Rather than shun the media, Criscuola (1981, p. 17) advocated less timidity when dealing with education reports:

Privately, education reporters will tell you that educators are not "open" and "candid" with them. They feel that facts are hidden from them. In some cases, their assessment is accurate.

He further stated that public relations should receive priority for informing the public about some of the good things that are happening in the schools. In short, a media offensive is called for. Ebel (1982, p. 375) further advanced this argument, stating that there are educators who feel that "The main problem in education . . . is one of public relations, of telling the true story, of selling education to the people."

The selling of public education to promote a more positive image of teachers and therefore of teacher educators is an important professional response to public skepticism. Certainly, there is much "Good News" to tell. In an update to a previous article, Hodgkinson (1982, pp. 231-235) proponded "What's Still Right With Education." One impressive improvement, for example,

has been the new concern for providing the media with accurate, effective information on actual school performance at the local, state, and national levels. The selling of education is thus becoming a greater priority within the total enterprise:

Educators today seem far more aware of the importance of informing the public about school achievements. Such achievements are not new, but our ability to communicate them has improved notably.

Hodgkinson continued to cite some of the more positive qualities of American education, including greater access to schools, a greater knowledge base among educational researchers, improving or arresting declines in standardized test scores, increased percentages of high school graduates, and greater opportunities in handicapped education. New evidence also has helped attack the notion that U.S. education is lagging behind other countries (Huson, 1983, pp. 451-461).

The mere fact that so much attention, albeit negative, has been focused on education, is also good news of a sort for educators, for this position in the limelight of public attention provides an opportunity for renewal (Hall and Hord, 1982).

It would follow that a proactive stance could be taken by teacher educators to advance the image of education as a whole and teacher preparation in particular. At the very minimum, those in higher education should work to correct false images of themselves. The public, quite simply, will not support what they do not understand (Moore, 1980). In the recent Field Poll (1983), for example, Californians in the post "Proposition 13" financial crunch have continued to believe that per capita spending for public education ranks high nationally even though the reverse is true. A proactive stance by educators is needed to correct such image distortion. Such a step was taken by Perry (1981), who attacked the notion that colleges of education are responsible for the presence of unqualified teachers in the schools. Colleges must be accountable for this problem but certainly for no more than their share of the responsibility. Perry stated that thirty-six percent of the applicants for teaching jobs in the Dallas district failed the Wesman teacher qualification test, whereas fifty-five percent of newly hired teachers failed it. Hiring practices of school districts must also share the responsibility for the unqualified teachers currently in the schools (Perry, 1982, p. 114). While this example does little to advance the image of the personnel procedures of the Dallas district itself, it nevertheless demonstrates the need for those in teacher preparation to tell their own story as accurately as possible. An accurate analysis of the respective responsibility of schools and colleges for providing competent teachers is a first step toward not only teacher improvement but also an image of public confidence in the media.

In addition to providing an accurate picture of education, a practice approach to image improvement requires a new relationship with the media to advance the story of education. Over a decade ago, the Chronicle of Higher Education (1982, p. 8) warned colleges and universities of the need to market its product: "In the higher education . . . if the customers don't buy, the institution will die." Fortunately, there are now materials available to help educators develop effective public relations programs (see, for example, Framm, 1982 and "Field Proven Programs for Better Public Relations," 1979). The National School Public Relations Association now provides a professional organization devoted to studying and advancing the image of public education.

Accuracy in reporting and the selling of the profession are only part of the task confronting teacher education. The best marketing offensive will revitalize the public image of teacher education only so far as the product itself can withstand scrutiny. Colleges will not regain the public's confidence in the grades and evaluations they bestow upon prospective teachers, counselors, and administrators, until they are once again perceived as engaged in the pursuit of excellence (Perry, 1981, p. 114). The most important responsibility for teacher educators is to search for continuing improvement in the preparation of prospective teachers. Fortunately, and appropriately, teacher educators are actively seeking to develop the profession. Rogus (1982) has dared us to build a new profession; Howsham (1982) has discussed the need for new coalitions and expanded standards of accrediting through N.C.A.T.E.; and Wisniowski (1982) has offered three visions for the future of teacher education. While those examples are not meant to be inclusive, they are representative of the continuing need to ask not only what is good--or bad--about teacher education, but, more important, how can it be made better?

The alternative for a failure of those involved in teacher education to provide positive responses to the decline in public acceptance of the total education enterprise is to risk change imposed solely from without. We can expect public education to be an increasing political issue in the next campaign year. Already one hears educational rhetoric in the political arena. Advisory committees such as the National Commission on Excellence in Education can be expected to proliferate. Careful attention from the professionals therefore must be given to means of dramatizing the issues and onlisting broad public support (Howsham, 1982).

In terms of the totality of education, teacher preparation is quite simply the foundation of the entire system. Mortons and Yarger stated that those who write and study about education--including, one presumes, the media--come to the realization that the ". . . strength of the system essentially depends on the

capabilities of the people who teach--ergo, depends on the training of teachers." Those in teacher education can initiate the revitalization of the image of public education and teacher preparation, as Rogus (1982, p. 329) stated, by creating a positive agenda to which the public can respond. Proactive public relations strategies will illuminate the educational agenda, advancing through the glass of public scrutiny. It is time to engage the task.



EDITORIAL COMMITTEE

McLevie, Haworth, Anderson, Russell, Kirk, Williamson

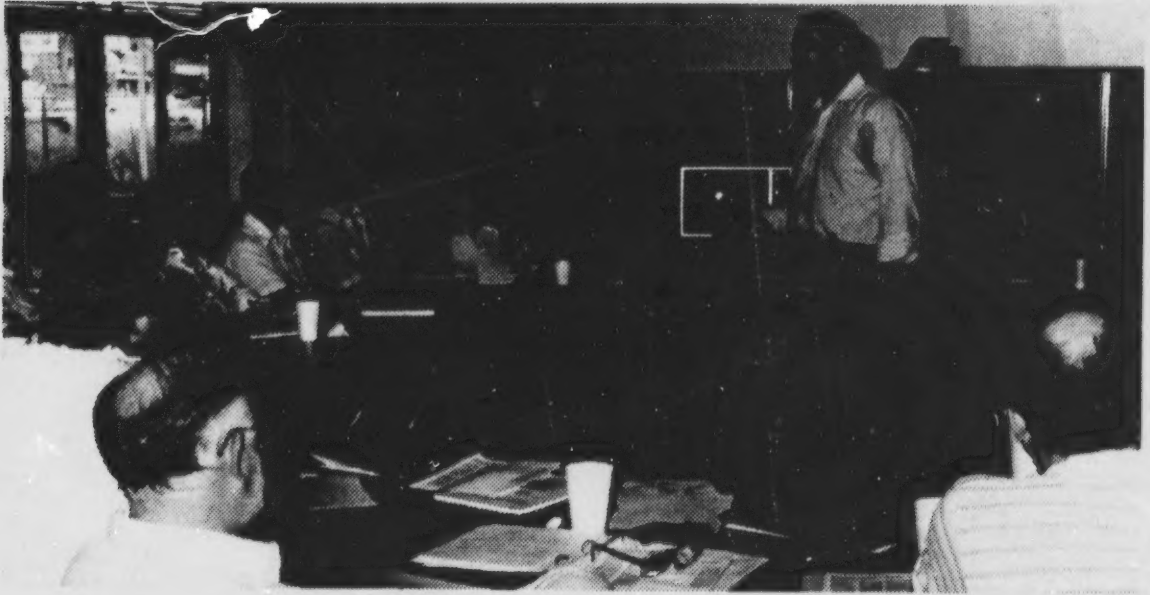
Governance: Proactive Future Directions

If by magic we could look through a multi-paned French door into the future of teacher education, certainly one of the key glazed sections would be labeled "governance". Cushman (1977, p. 12) in his excellent book, The Governance of Teacher Education, broadly defines this term as the political process by which decisions are reached and policy developed for the preparation of school personnel. Using his definition of governance as a "process", we are reminded that complexity is the name of the process game and process is a journey, not a destination. It is a direction toward a set of goals or objectives. As we stand at the threshold of the mid-80's and dream of the future, we must be cognizant of how we arrived at this point. There has been, if not a transformation, surely a gradually sweeping shift of primary control over teacher education purposes, goals, and curricula from the academy of teacher preparation institutions to a much broader arena. This trend has caused a power shift in the directional task of preparing teachers and personnel for the education of American children and youth for the next decade and beyond. It is common knowledge that although the state has had primary legal responsibility and the practicing profession (the consumers of the products of the preparation institutions) has had a major interest; only recently have they stepped to the front to claim a dominant role in policy formation. No longer are these two legitimate partners in the enterprise willing to stand in the shadows and be only peripheral acceptors of our institutional products. Their intent to be involved is quite clear. The rising tide of state activity is documented easily as legislatures, responding to their publics, usurp the jurisdiction of their state boards and educational agencies to take an active role in certification and policy formation previously promulgated to these units of government. The legislative, executive, and judicial branches of state government appear to have stepped (or jumped) almost overnight into the governance mainstream with legislation, mandates, and decisions addressing a wide range of educational policy issues.

The other traditionally silent partner in the triad, the organized practicing profession, is also taking quantum leaps toward more direct power-based control of the governance system. One example of the most conspicuous effort to date by a major organization in the profession, The National Education Association, is the document, Excellence in Our Schools: Teacher Education an Action Plan (1982). The increasing political influence of the "practicing profession" and its federal and state lobbying efforts is a matter of record. Realizing that when "plans" proposed with a broad based power like the voting organizational constituency of professional organizations are linked with the pressure responsive legislative dynamic, there is no doubt that edu-politics will

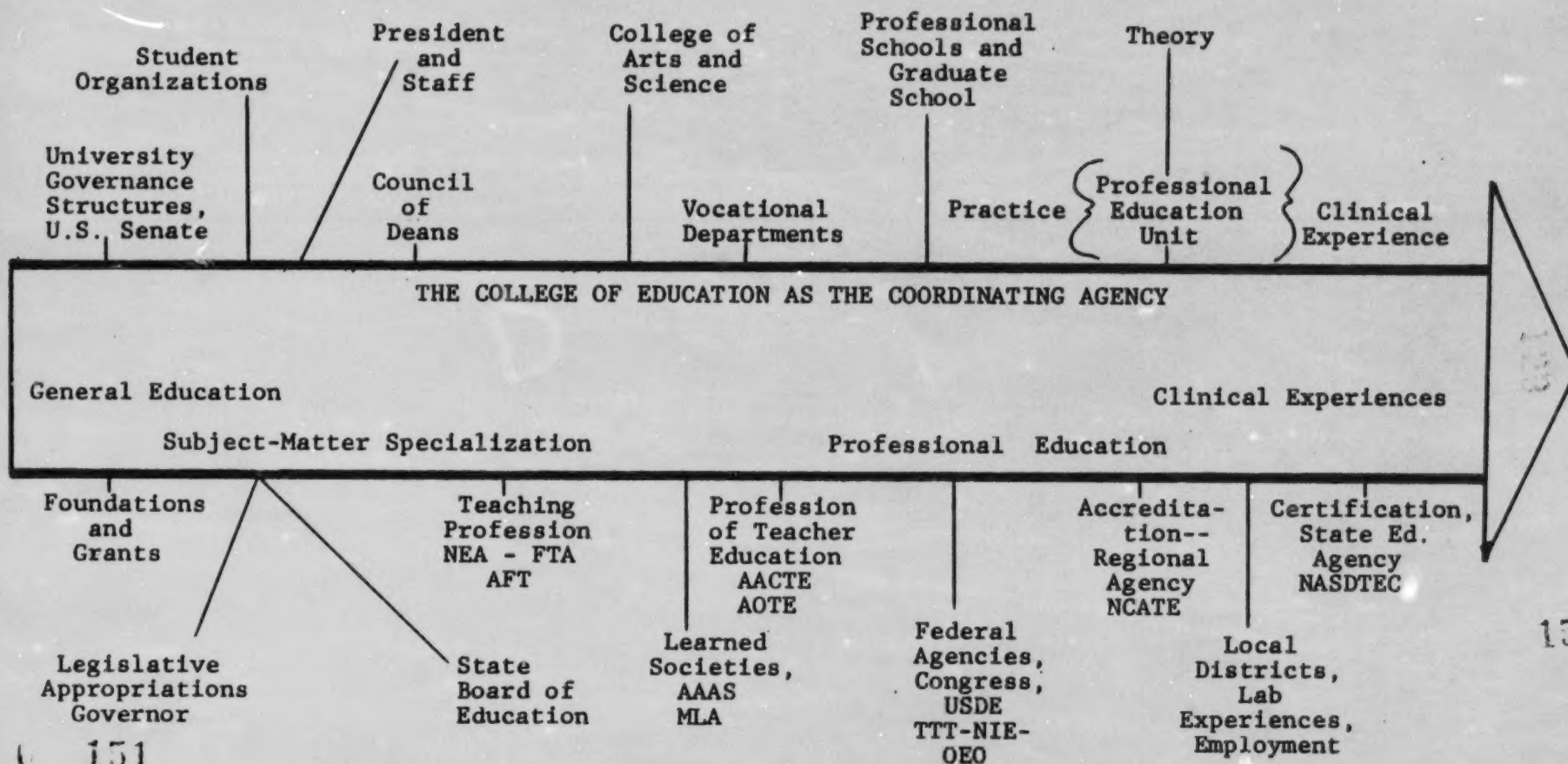
be the cytoplasm for highly energized educational activity for the mid-80's and beyond.

In the June, 1976 issue of Phi Delta Kappan, the following model for governance appeared (Cushman and Steeves, p. 688):



A MODEL FOR THE GOVERNANCE OF TEACHER EDUCATION

Influences Within the University



Influences Outside the University

The obvious vehicle for coordination in this model is an Academy of Teacher Education Preparation Institutions. One major coordinating responsibility is to the various interest groups or publics that are graphically depicted as influences outside the university setting. As we reflect historically over the past seven years we would not only wonder at the increased activity of the influences in the direct triad just cited, but also at the mushrooming activity by all other publics cited along the lower continuum of the model. What the model doesn't show are some additional imperatives or realities that also are forcing responses either directly on the academic community or indirectly on the other influencing publics. If we could visualize the addition of a third dimension to the schematic we could include such forces as:

1. A public loss of confidence in teachers and teaching.
2. Tightening economic conditions - state and national
3. The ballooning of the research/knowledge base
4. The rise in high technology emphases
5. The inability of institutions to respond to rapid changing societal needs and goals
6. Pupil population highs and lows
7. Rapidly changing population shifts

to name a few of the most obvious. These "other" influences are also increasingly effecting a groundswell of responses to their imperatives causing an already complex journey to take on the appearance of a multi-dimensional chess game.

As we stand boldly looking forward (with many a hesitant glance over our shoulders), we realize that the governance process is really an evolutionary model and change is a driving reality. It is extremely difficult to internalize a moment in time in such a changing atmosphere, but if we could stop the clock for an instant, how could we describe the state of professional governance today? Some would say "disorganized", with no apparent consistency of effort except emerging self-serving power struggles. Others might cite an apparent "fragmenting" of true direction or describe a condition similar to an exploding rocket with pieces of the whole flying in all directions. Many would see a "pin-ball" type condition that would alternate between finding paths of least resistance and bouncing back and forth-as objects or influences either hinder progress or add impetus to new directions. A few would claim a scenario of a car race with shifting positions being made at various speeds by many participants on a cyclic track going nowhere.

One condition most would agree upon is that described by Carolyn Warner (1983) in an address to the 1983 NCA Teacher Education Workshop, "this is a time to accentuate the positive and eliminate the negative, to travel new roads less traveled, to convert weakness to strength, to think broadly and creatively

about purpose, to convert difficulties to opportunities and to grow and inspire people to meet difficult challenges - in short, to lead."

Today, "looking through the glass darkly" we must not be so foolish that we ignore our rich heritage of the past. However, we also must not be foolhardy and continue to "saw the sawdust". One might wonder as we reflect on the governance process if we in teacher education have fallen into a pattern of stimulus - response activity as a natural progression of a traditional behaviorist paradigm. As a result, we may place ourselves in an operational mode of trying to be "all things to all people" in order to react to the many pressures of an expanding group of publics. It is quite apparent to most that a transformation is in progress. Reform efforts are already in full swing. Almost all of the publics are initiating papers, studies, hearings, reports and positions. David Imig (1982, p. 113) in a keynote presentation to the 1982 Teacher Education Workshop, said, "an important distinction needs to be drawn between those who propose strategies to better control teacher education (and teaching) and those that recommend ways to better the training of teachers". He makes the point that attempts at further control, more restrictions and mandates concerning how and who will prepare teachers (a major debate at present), may not be addressing the real question concerning how do we improve the capacity of teacher educators and the capability of teacher education programs to prepare effective beginning teachers. We should be very alert concerning the motives and goals of the various publics.

The model presented at the beginning of Chapter VI suggests that movement in many areas must change from a Reactive stance (response to stimulus) to a Proactive (initiation and inquiry stance). This will not be an easy task because the "institution of education" must respond to the publics while concurrently attempting to influence, lead, and inform them. One key is to respond to "informed" publics and in the words of Carolyn Warner (1983), we must "educate about education" as one of our proactive tasks. Based on the assumption that education is the key to success for the nation, another proactive governance activity must be to restore the confidence of all publics in our ability to prepare teachers who are competent to prepare future generations. We should stand as bulwarks against "quick fixes"; we must initiate leadership toward common goals for producing quality products for long range future purposes. It is imperative that we view education in the light of its broader long range imperatives. Teacher educators must tip the governance process balance scales through cooperative effort as illustrated in Chart No. 1.

Chart No. 1

Recommended Directional Changes

<u>From</u>	<u>To</u>
Negative attitude.	.Positive attitude
Disorganization.	.Harmony
Selfishness.	.Altruism
Response.	.Initiative
Poor Image	.Public Confidence
Mandates	.Consensus
Defense	.Offense
Rigidity	.Dynamics
Stagnation	.Creativity
Excuses	.Positive Action

The time is now.

All very fine you say, but how? Several proactive steps are being proposed in Chapter VI of this publication, and others will surface as educators continue to think and write. As we redesign the process of governance and attempt to initiate as well as to respond, we will realize that tradition and external imperatives are heavy mountains to move. We would become more despondent as we individually and as a profession continue the long, downhill slide to powerlessness and lack of control of our own destiny, or we could say "Balderdash".

Our profession, individually and collectively, is wallowing in a condition of poor self-image, and one of the most important proactive steps must be to intervene in what has almost become a self-fulfilling prophecy. A close look at the manifestations of poor self-image will disclose that teachers (and the profession of teaching) have symptoms that interfere with the ability to initiate productive change. In his book, See You at the Top, Zig Ziglar (1980, p. 27) addresses the concept of analysis and building self-image. His premise that building self-image is a first step in building future well-being is an interesting thought when applied to the teaching profession.

Lets look at a few characteristics that many have described as being the attitudes of teachers. A partial list that has become an almost generic profile is: insecurity, negative reaction to criticism (excuses), critical and jealous nature, breakdown in motivation (I don't care attitude), seldom challenges authority even when challenge is warranted, often avoids creativity or change, (from fear of failure or rejection of self or ideas), makes concessions beyond good principles, lacks decisiveness or is slow to ack on judgements, tends to be more negative than positive (sees the glass half-empty rather

than half-full). The list could go on and on and the readers could add numerous examples from their own educational situation and backgrounds. Ziglar (1980, p. 72) says, "every area of life and every occupation is affected by a poor self-image", "revitalization strategies", "in-service and renewal" efforts so dominant in the literature today strongly suggest that it is. Building a positive self-image in the profession of education is a very necessary first step in proactive intervention strategy for governance activity.

It is not easy to reverse a personal and professional trend that often is reinforced by negative external forces. Teachers and the teaching profession have been, and are today, bombarded from all sides with negative stimuli. Ability, style, intelligency, and competence have been ridiculed both openly and subtly in a wide spectrum of societal environments. Examples range from the public media, to enuendos in written and spoken language, to quaint cliché's like, "those who can do, those who can't teach". In a country where earnings are a mark of success and money is often a measure of the worth of a person or profession to the total society, the monetary rewards afforded to teachers are another clear external message questioning their value to our society.

The destructiveness of the combination of external negative cues and internal negative attitudes is continuing to build, and this trend must be addressed at all levels of the educational enterprise. Proposing proactive self-image building in this environment with these mindsets is surely asking individuals and the profession to transcend the past and present and to face the future with ingenuity and courage. It is imperative that we build confidence in ourselves and what we do before we can expect the way we are viewed by others to change. We must police our ranks, right our wrongs, educate our publics, do what we do well, and continue to be an active voice and influence in our own destiny. We must reverse the pressures, lead rather than follow, stop operating from a position that emphasizes plight, excuses, and weakness. We must exhibit pride, strength, self-worth, integrity, and cooperation as we address the future.

To coin a phrase by Zig Ziglar (1980, p. 9), "We are the only ones who can use our ability. It is an awesome responsibility". As we prepare future teachers, as we assist in adding vitality to the present teaching force, and as we actively strive for quality educational programs for the total population of our country, we must bring light to the darkness that often shrouds our view. We must attract and retain the best students for programs that are creative and future oriented. We must share power with our publics on an equal, active basis as we chart the course which will lead to commonly accepted educational goals. Hopefully then, our view through the glass will become less dark.

Edu-Politics and Policy Engineering: A Renaissance In Teacher Education

Historically, institutions of higher education, and teacher education programs specifically, have been awarded relatively high prestige, well-defined autonomy, and great academic freedom (Bergen, 1980, pp. 217-222). However, that position has become increasingly tenuous (Cameron, 1983, pp. 360-379). The decade of the eighties finds teacher education describing itself and being evaluated by both public and media "through the glass darkly." Teacher education today is ensconced less in its historical role of policy engineering (proactivity) and more in response (reactivity) to discrete political forces. In a world in which communication has achieved both a critical, yet a fragile niche, teacher education is more frequently the receiver and implementer of policies and decisions and less the creator and engineer (Cameron, 1983, pp. 360-379). For good or ill, education and politics have become inextricably wedded, leading to what will be referred to in this paper as "edu-politics." The crucial question in this bonding of education and politics is predicated on leadership: How can teacher education regain and maintain its traditional position of decision-making and policy-engineering?

The first step in responding to this question is a consideration of the state of the art. A plethora of evidence exists which indicates that the prerogatives of teacher education institutions have been decreasing as teacher educators respond to mandates of state and national government, to pressures of special task forces and interest groups, and to negative acculturation through public media and communications (Warner, 1980, pp. 144-145; Durkin, 1981, pp. 183-187; Roener, 1982, pp. 203-223; Parks, 1983, pp. 11-13). It appears that people other than teacher educators are deciding the future of teacher education. For example, leadership for establishing requirements for state certification and changing traditional teacher education programs has been shifting from teacher educators to legislators (Durkin, 1981, pp. 183-187). Legislators are either passing laws specifically setting regulations, establishing standards, and prescribing programs for teacher education or are directing state departments of education to do so. This phenomenon has the effect of making teacher education increasingly dependent on external political forces (Durkin, 1981, pp. 183-187).

Illustrations of this dependency are seen in those mandates by state legislators who want field experiences early in teachers' preservice training and specific guidelines applied to student teaching experiences and professional course work--and are demanding accountability. Monitoring of implementation of these mandates by accreditation teams, such as those from the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) and dependency on public schools and public school personnel in planning, delivering,

and evaluating teacher education programs, are further evidence of reduced autonomy for institutions of higher education regarding teacher education programs and practices (Warner, 1980, pp. 144-145).

Much of the pressure on teacher education comes from Washington, in spite of Terrel Bell's assertion that he hoped to be "successful in reversing the relentless trend toward federal control of American education" (Schuster, 1982, pp. 583-591). Judiciary mandated integration was only the beginning of Federal interference in the schools and lessened autonomy for teacher education. The Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 marked the government's first major effort to target Federal aid to needy students. Public Law 94-142, passed in 1975, provided for the education of all handicapped students. Among the states, Texas is under court order to expand its bilingual education programs (Williams, 1981, pp. 61-65).

Implementation of these laws is carefully monitored, limiting still further policy engineering and leadership in teacher education. At the same time, President Reagan is actively seeking support for such proposals as merit pay for teachers, stiffer academic standards, and a return to basics in the curriculum, all decisions historically engineered by higher education (McCurdy, 1983, p. 3). In addition, since the United States Supreme Court ruled in 1969 that students do not "shed their constitutional rights . . . at the schoolhouse gate," teacher educators have been facing measurable risk in failures to respond to pressure groups and political factions (Williams, 1981, pp. 61-65). Interestingly, the public continues to support Federal involvement in education (Schuster, 1982, pp. 583-591).

Anachronistically, after decades of rejection as a national priority, education is now in the national spotlight as a hot campaign issue. However, it appears that much more political opportunism and professional status seeking are being evidenced than genuine questing for educational excellence (Fitch, 1983). Expressing his frustration with the political debate on education, National Education Association Director, Don Cameron, lamented that "all the wrong issues" are being emphasized (Watkins, 1983, p. 4). American Federation of Teachers President, Albert Shankar, concurred, but is "urging AFT members to keep open minds on education reforms" (McCurdy, 1983, p. 3).

State and national level legislators, politicians, and power group lobbyists rationalize their interests in educational reforms as responses to the plethora of negative findings on studies of achievement in our nation's public schools and teacher education programs. Reported in the media widely and with questionable sensationalism, these findings are those historically gathered and utilized by higher education for the

purposes of refinement of programs and improvement of instruction (Fitch, 1983). Nevertheless, the nation is panicking and the politicians are capitalizing on the research conclusion that "our entire public-education system is nearing collapse" (Goodlad, 1983, pp. 465-470). Reports of declining achievement, increasing illiteracy, grade inflation, teacher incompetency, and lowered standards are disturbing to the public as well as teacher education (National Commission on Excellence in Education, 1983, pp. 1-17; National Assessment of Educational Progress, 1982, pp. 1-20). Equal consternation is being expressed at the announcements that college entrance examination scores--The American College Test and College Board's Scholastic Aptitude Test--are steadily declining (Schuster, 1983, pp. 583-591). Of even greater concern is the report that prospective teacher education majors score among the lower percentiles for all college bound seniors on the SAT and that teacher education is attracting, increasingly, the less intellectually capable college students (Schuster, 1983, pp. 583-591). The decline in the entry qualifications of teaching candidates is disconcertingly well documented (Gideonse, 1982, pp. 15-19). Operating in concert, however, dissonant, these factors are inciting demoralization and low self-image with teacher education (Gallup, 1983, pp. 5-13; Parks, 1983, pp. 11-13). In fact, one of the most perplexing problems facing teacher education is how to maintain the image and performance of disheartened professionals (Parks, 1983, pp. 11-13).

Clearly, these data provide irrefutable evidence of diminished autonomy, self-image, public confidence, decision-making, and policy-engineering in teacher education. The consensus among teacher educators is that from this dissonance must evolve definite consonance (Mertens, 1982, pp. 8-12; Gideonse, 1982, pp. 15-19). However, they also concur that the impetus for change must be internal, not imposed by external political controls (Richardson, 1983, pp. 180-183). How, then, can teacher education renew its position of policy engineering of constructive change and establish needed consonance?

Examination of the literature reveals five major, yet interrelated, responses to the question. All seem to agree with Gideonse that "we require a revolution in our profession" and "must assert the primacy of knowledge over mere expediency (1982, pp. 15-19).

(1) Shared Autonomy. A consensus appears to be emerging among teacher educators that a "new day is dawning for schools, colleges, and departments of education," a "new day" interpreted as "shared autonomy" (Warner, 1981, pp. 144-145). Warner explains that

"... faculty and administrators of teacher education programs in institutions of higher education must exhibit new willingness to

collaborate with other members of the professional family of teaching--and with consumer groups--if the status of the profession is to grow....Shared autonomy is preferable to none at all....." (1981, p. 145).

An example of such autonomy is reflected in the encouragement to teacher educators to perfect leadership roles and policy engineering strategies "in response to governmental pressure..." The plan is clear: "We must do all in our power to bring about needed changes in present programs by...identifying precisely the needed changes and then persuading (lobbying) legislators to enact improvements as part of the licensing legislation..." (Durkin, 1981, pp. 183-187). This system is developing in New Jersey and is modeled through the Competency Based Teacher Education program at Trenton State College. Trenton's faculty decided that their definite objectives and values in developing a program involving professional education courses and internship experiences "would not be subverted to the state-mandated competency-based program." Instead, "competency-based education would provide a process for developing a program consistent with their values" (Durkin, 1981, pp. 183-187). Throughout the literature teacher education is encouraged to assume similar leadership roles and responsibility for policy engineering (Sizer, 1983, pp. 679-683; Schuster, 1982, pp. 583-591; Hendrikson, 1982, pp. 338-341).

(2) Leadership and the Lobby. Thus far in the eighties, decision making power has been primarily in the legislature. However, it is imperative that teacher educators work to regain leadership for influencing decisions to teacher education (Cameron, 1983, pp. 360-379). Specifically, colleagues within teacher education must "merge forces to persuade the American political system--its public authorities and its great private philanthropics--that investment in imaginative education engineering is absolutely essential" (Sizer, 1983, pp. 679-683).

Unfortunately, among professional teacher education organizations, only the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education presently has an active lobbying force--but its efforts are neither concentrated and organized, nor frequent (Gollnick, 1983). Although disappointing, this is not surprising. Schuster explains that the education lobby "has never come close to realizing its full potential at the national level" because "neither the will...nor the requisite political resources have been available in the past" (Schuster, 1982, pp. 583-591). Through concerted action among teacher educators and their professional organizations a strong lobbying force must be created. Only then can equity be achieved within "edu-politics."

(3) Coalition for Power. An appropriate means of restoring powers of engineering policy to teacher education and thus

effecting greater equity within "edu-politics" might be the formation of a coalition. The potential powers of a representative coalition in teacher education, comparable in prestige and professionalism to the American Medical Association, are vast. Among these powers is the lobbying force. This proposed coalition would merge the strongest forces in teacher education:

"....the National Education Association and the American Federation of Teachers are the two critical organizations on the practitioner side. For the campus-based teacher educators with research and development as well as teacher education functions the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, the Association of Colleges and Schools of Education in State Universities and Land Grant Colleges and Affiliated Private Universities, the Teacher Education Conference of State Colleges and Universities, and the Association of Teacher Educators are considered as critical. These organizations will also have access to state organizations which can provide a ready-made dissemination and involvement network" (Howsham, 1983, pp. 2-6).

The primary task of a coalition should be to develop and to adopt position papers, strategies for broader involvement, action plans for their own organizations, and courses of action to initiate and support the needed political and legislative action. Careful attention should be given to means of dramatizing the issues and enlisting broad public support. Communications, including documents, press releases, public addresses, and political lobbying, must be strong, forceful, thoughtfully prepared, and astutely engineered (Howsham, 1983, pp. 2-6).

Of great importance in such a coalition is the need for high professional standards to be imposed from within. Leaders must be knowledgeable and sympathetic. The coalition must be willing and prepared to explore current issues equitably--faculty development, competency-based teacher education, competency testing for professionals, merit pay, mastery plans. It would seem that the coalition might be the incentive engineer in the development and monitoring of programs of excellence in teacher education. The responsibility for the communication of the most outstanding qualities of these programs to the public, and thusly, for the enhancement of professional image, would be that of the coalition (Howsham, 1983, pp. 2-6).

In a similar proposal Mertens (1982) suggests the establishment of "a highly prestigious national body, tentatively the 'American Education Congress,' to make policy in all areas of education....where this national group would differ from others currently on the scene is that it would be recognized as the leadership in determining national education policies." Like the coalition, "it would be a permanent body....bringing all

education constituencies together to work on national education problems" (Mertens, 1982, pp. 8-12).

(4) Megatrends. The evolvement from an emphasis on coalition to an emphasis on the future of education, perhaps heightened by a coalition, is an organic one. It might be that one of the reasons that teacher education relinquished many of its traditional powers to politics during the past decade was its failure to recognize that schools and students, just like the world in which they live, are dynamic--constantly changing and evolving. "All education springs from some image of the future" (Toffler, 1974, p. 182). Teacher education might better renew its powers of policy engineering if it heeds the ten major trends (megatrends) of the future, those which "help one to anticipate the future by understanding the present" (Naisbitt, 1983, pp. 7-120). The four megatrends predicted to challenge the leadership of teacher education most profoundly in the future are:

- a. Megashift from Industrial to Information Society. Of the 19 million new jobs created in the United States during the 1970's only 11 percent were in the goods producing sector. "The most formidable challenge will be to train people to work in the information society" (Naisbitt, 1983, pp. 7-120). The "education mismatch" of current educational efforts and educational needs will challenge the teacher educators and determine the educational leaders of the eighties.
- b. High Tech/High Touch. Whenever new technology is introduced, there must be a counterbalancing human response--that is, "high-touch"--or the technology is rejected. For example, the human potential movement was the response to high technology expanding all around us. Naisbitt (1983, pp. 7-120) explains:

"By discovering our potential as human beings we participate in the evolution of the human race. We develop the inner knowledge, the wisdom perhaps, required to guide our exploration of technology. As the use of technology in education increases, the greater the need for 'human touch!'"
- c. Shift from Institutional Help to Self-Help. Self-help is expressed in education as parents and other citizens become more active in schools, start their own schools, or even help to educate their children at home. "...the education issue is ripe for increased local initiative" (Naisbitt, 1983, pp. 7-120).

- d. Short-Term to Long-Term Planning. "In education we are moving from the short-term consideration of completing our training at the end of high school or college to life-long education and retraining" (Naisbitt, 1983, pp. 7-120). Education will be reconceptualized during the 80's. If teacher education is to lead this reconceptualization, it will need to question every aspect of education's purpose: "The purpose must be right, and it must be a shared vision, a strategic vision" (Naisbitt, 1983, pp. 7-120).

The study of megatrends might offer educators the needed insights to develop the "strategic vision" of educating that will revive the leadership and policy engineering essential to change. More vitally it might help us all to see that in this time of critical uncertainty we can "have extraordinary leverage and influence--individually, professionally, and institutionally--if we can only get a clear sense, a clear conception, of the road ahead" (Naisbitt, 1983, pp. 7-120).

(5) The Human in Humanistic. In any discussion of leadership development and policy engineering, one must not lose the human perspective. A teacher education program that "hopes to prepare its teachers to serve youth adequately for the future must base its planning on humanistic approaches to the nature and function of persons" (Combs, 1983, pp. 446-449). Four "certainties" about the future will confront teacher educators in their attempts to lead the profession to humanistic application of policy engineering (Combs, 1983, pp. 446-449). These are expressly important to equity in edu-politics:

- (a) Certainty I.: The Information Explosion.
Ninety percent of all the scientists who have ever lived are alive today. Technical information doubles every ten years. There are 100,000 technical journals available now, and the number doubles every 19 years. Such data must be a vital consideration of teacher education if its new leadership, albeit a coalition, and its new policy engineering are to evolve within edu-politics.
- (b) Certainty II.: The Increasing Pace of Change.

The present is changing and the future will continue to change at evermore rapid rates. Students coming out of high school today may have to change their life work four or five times. The future needs of students "are so diverse that it is impossible to be certain that any specific subject matter will be essential to cope with life in the very near future" (Combs, 1983, pp. 446-449).

- (c) Certainty III.: The Interdependent Society.
 We live in perhaps the most interdependent, cooperative society the world has ever known. The major problems we face today and the primary problems we shall face in the future have to do with learning to live effectively with ourselves and other people.
- (d) Certainty IV.: The Higher Need. "The more a society succeeds in providing human beings with goods and services that fulfill basic needs, the more its citizens will seek the fulfillment of higher needs such as love, esteem, and self-actualization" (Combs, 1983, pp. 446-449). In engineering new policy, in designing and interacting with political forces, teacher educators must also recognize that the fulfillment of personal needs is a necessary step to higher levels of motivation, achievement, and responsible action and thought

Combs (1983, pp. 446-449) suggested that these four "certainties" will affect teacher education profoundly. The extent to which teacher educators implement them into their design for change may influence strongly the strengthening or lessening of teacher education in the arena of political decision-making and engineering.

In conclusion, it must be noted that all five recommendations for change within "edu-politics" evolved through thought, analysis, and synthesis of teacher educators. The 80's can be a "new day" for teacher education through a merger of all five recommendations. New concepts of leadership, new unification and coalition among the strong forces in teacher education, a reconceptualization of the education lobby in the inevitable world of politics, a contemplative questing of future trends, and a strongly committed belief that all concerns lead to the human aspect of education can create a teacher education that is more prestigious and more successful than at any other age.

Education, Politics and Edu-Politics

In terms of the model presented earlier in Figure 1 of Chapter 6, this particular subsection will attempt to provide a definition for and explanation of the third-dimensional rendering headed "EDU-POLITICS". Indeed, a major contributing factor to the term "darkly" as used in the title of this section is that highly complex and often confusing interplay between government, public education, and politics. For reasons of clarification, the term "Edu-politics" refers to the merging of education and politics, or more specifically, education as a political issue. (Although the two are closely interrelated, it is necessary to make a distinction between "policies" and "politics".) A brief review of the events of the past fifteen years will provide insights into the significant factors that have combined to create the present milieu.

Much has been written about the painful sixties and the far-reaching consequences of that period of unrest. One result was the focusing of attention on the nation's college and university campuses in a manner never before known. The sit-in demonstrations, the draft card burnings, the student takeover of Administration buildings and libraries and--ultimately--the Kent State Shootings all brought this nation's system of higher education, via extensive media coverage, into the homes of millions of Americans (many of whom had never seen a college or university campus first hand). That result was the forging of a new relationship between the two. The average taxpaying citizen viewed, nightly, the encounters between students and police and administrators with shock, outrage, and disgust. The ivory tower crumbled; the chosen were viewed as having feet of clay.

Closely related to this was a rising sense of disillusionment for many citizens, middle-aged and older, particularly with the Federal government. A growing realization of the extremely high costs, in terms of lives, tax dollars, and world prestige, left many Americans disenchanted. The aftermath of the Nixon-Watergate scandal made a sense of distrust for public officials and public institutions. As one writer postulates, the present day decline in public confidence in education is a closely related outcome of "declining confidence in authority and the legitimacy of the state", (Weiler, 1982, p. 3).

The period of the late seventies saw, perhaps as a result of the previously described factors, an attempt on behalf of many to return to an earlier time of stability in the framework of family, God, and country. A growing conservatism was sweeping the nation, and hand-in-hand with it was the increasing popularity of fundamentalism. The "Born Again" movement gained rapid

popularity during this period, and the careers of a wave of new evangelists saw meteoric ascendancy. (The transfer of role of religious leadership to educational spokespersonship on behalf of many of these is significant as is their vehement attack on "secular humanism" in public education.)

The 1980 presidential election, then, saw a majority of voters who were tired of what they perceived as "big government", tired of domestic taxes in any form, and dissatisfied and resentful of the allocation of funds to cure social ills. The voters likewise perceived an excessive and increasing role of the Federal government in education, and felt that too much money (and too much control) was coming from the public sector. Adding encouragement to this latter point were the conservative media spokesmen, like Paul Harvey, who barraged an already dissatisfied public with "horror stories" of the thousands-upon-thousands of tax dollars being wasted on funding ridiculous research projects.

Taking a broader and more sociological perspective, an article appearing in Urban Education concludes that the middle-class demands on education in the 1980's are rooted in the traditional values and social behavior which reflect the Protestant Ethic with its stress on hard work and restraint. (Shapiro, 1982, p. 243) The author observes that, prior to the intervention of government, the schools provided a means of stratification, since they were primarily white, English speaking, non-handicapped Americans, and the "government policies have undermined class and racial advantages of the middle class." (p. 246). A similar argument was presented by Poulantzas (1973) who noted that the average blue collar worker (unlike his white collar counterpart) does not acquire his professional training and technical skills in school, but rather learns them on the job. "What is chiefly taught to the working class is discipline, respect for authority, and a veneration for mental labor..." (Poulantzas, 1973, p. 266). The result is that middle-class expectations, particularly blue collar expectations, for education are hard work, persistence, and endurance. For this reason, the perceptions of this group are that government-sponsored efforts have made school "too easy" and "too flexible" so that it no longer functions to restrict or select out the "wrong" or "incapable" students (such as the impoverished, the handicapped, the Black and other minority students). (Shapiro, 1982, p. 246).

Samuel Halperin blames much of the confusion and dissatisfaction concerning education upon the fragmentation and, at times, contradictory nature of recent governmental policies dealing with education. Noting that the tendency has been to focus on narrower questions with too little time and attention on broader issues, he writes, "One year we legislate for higher education, the next for vocational education, another for elementary and secondary education, with little concern for the

whole" (1981, p. 16). He questions the rationality of educational policy which, for example, "through tax deductability of educational expenses, encourages individuals to improve skills needed in their current employment but denies training for the same individual for new employment!" (p. 16)

Finally, in a broader sense, in spite of the problems cited in the previous paragraphs, both the constraints placed on education and expectations of policy makers and the general public are frequently unrealistic. One writer observes that there is a tendency, in educational policy making circles, "to appropriate \$5 million to \$10 million in Washington and expect 'results' in the academic lives of 50 million Americans! (Miller, 1981, p. 16.) James W. Guthrie, in an article for The Kappan writes:

Few nations have ever expected so much of education as has the United States. Americans hold schooling responsible for serving the entire society as well as individual citizens. Social cohesion, economic productivity, civic virtue, and national defense are among the many public policy goals that we have established for our schools. Simultaneously, we expect them to produce individuals who are literate, moral, healthy, occupationally competent, and socially skilled. We want these many purposes to be met by an educational system that is free of politics, yet responsive to clients; sensitive to national needs, yet subject to the desires of local citizens; controlled by laypeople, yet staffed by professionals. (p. 471-72)

Having reviewed the attitudes of the general public as they pertain to government and education, and some of the reasons for these attitudes, this writer will now inspect the actual role of government in education in the past.

As one writer in The Kappan has observed, that the Federal government's role in education has never been primary; it has always been subordinate to the states (Schuster, 1982, p. 583). It should be kept in mind that, prior to the passage of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) of 1965, educational policy formulation has nearly always been in response to other, primary, policy needs (such as National Defense, Anti-Poverty, Labor, or Veterans's Benefits). And to what extent, political rhetoric aside, has the Federal government really involved itself in education? Terrel Bell, himself an advocate of withdrawal of the Federal government from the educational enterprise, in a speech to the AFT (1981) admitted that, even at the height of Federal support, only 8% of all expenditures for elementary and secondary education derived from Federal sources while 92% came from state and local

agencies. According to one writer: "The Federal role in education is defined by the will of the policy" (Schuster, 1982, p. 584). But the reader should be reminded that, "in the American democratic system policy is politics" (Brademas, 1978, p. D-4). And we are, today, faced with a cold, hard reality: no matter what the role of government in education actually is, the role of education in politics and in political rhetoric is major.

The election of Ronald Reagan on a wave of conservatism has already had profound impacts on education, and the period between the present and the 1984 election promises to be crucial for education and for educators. In general, Reagan's "New Federalism" advocates a shrinking of the Federal government, reduced domestic spending, and lower taxes. In terms of education, Reagan's philosophy was well-articulated before he became president. A review of speeches and statements released by Ronald Reagan during his two terms as governor of California, compiled by Shirley Neill (1980, p. 137) catalogues his dissatisfaction with the tenure system (January, 1971), local control (March, 1967), tax credits (July, 1967) and an educational voucher system (October, 1970) and his belief that "Schools should spend less time trying to solve society's psychological, social and even nutritional problems and do more to train young people to get jobs" (February, 1972). Given these fundamental beliefs about education, what has been the focus, politically, of the Reagan administration in terms of education? How has this been orchestrated?

It is the opinion of this writer that the Reagan forces have chosen to capitalize on the disillusionment and dissatisfaction of the American voter by making education the focal point of an institution in American society which has been heavily dominated by government controls and which: (1) limits the rights of citizens to make choices, and (2) doesn't function very well. As has been noted earlier in this paper, the advent of the fundamentalist movement has been significant not only in terms of numbers, but it has also proven to be critical in terms of determining the outcome of elections. At the heart of this "Born Again" educational philosophy are the issues of: school prayer, tax credits for private schools, an escape from the evils of public education and its secular humanism, a return to basics, a termination of psychological and sociological research, and the removal of governmental controls over education. If one doubts the impact, or the seriousness of this group, an issue of Newsweek which cites the following statistic should prove convincing evidence: "By some estimates there are more than 10,000 Christian-fundamentalist schools around the country, and some observers say that they are currently appearing at the rate of three a day" (1981, p. 68). With an attitude that often approaches militancy, this block of constituents has, in terms of education, no interest in compromise.

These issues were reflected in the 1980 campaign, and the Reagan administration continues to expose them.

But what about the voting block which is not associated with the fundamentalist Christian education movement? A mounting number of media articles and video coverage has been given to the declining standard test scores of young Americans. The call to return to basics has been sounded on many fronts. The dissatisfied voter is concerned about the quality of the education which his tax dollars are supporting. He feels the Federal government should have less influence in education (Gallup, 1982, p. 42). But just how bad are things? (and equally important, if they are bad, how can the incumbent capitalize upon them?)

It should be remembered that, upon the public receipt of the controversial report, A Nation At Risk, President Reagan took the opportunity to renew his argument for tuition tax-credits. It should also be noted that the report has tended to set the tone for the eighties in education. This portion of the paper does not deal with the report other than as a facet of the Edu-politics of the 1980's.

A Nation At Risk serves as a blueprint for the Reagan education policy for the 1984 election. Presumably the strategy will be to blame the ills cited on the over-presence of the Federal government in education (i.e., previous democratic administrations and a democratic congress). The message to the voter will be that, under the Reagan administration, things will be different.

Already some members of the National Commission on Excellence in Education are beginning to express the feeling that their efforts had somehow been used for political purposes. The Chronicle of Higher Education (1983) reports: "Several members of the Commission were troubled by the President's remarks (about the report) saying they created a misleading impression that the panel had endorsed the administration's proposals..." (p. 10). One member, R.V. Halderlein, was quoted as observing that Reagan's remarks were "...strickly his platform and he just piggy-backed that onto our report" (p. 10). Another member, Gerald Holton, said he "...regretted that the climate in the executive branch of government at this time is such as to not embrace the leadership responsibility that is spelled out in the report" (p. 10).

The response of the democratic hopefuls has been no less swift. So far, all the candidates have emphasized their commitment to expanded support for education. Walter Mondale, for example, has proposed an \$11 billion strategy to renew education. Mondale was quoted in the May 18 issue of the Chronical as calling the president "...an enemy of excellence" (p. 15), and proposed establishment of the "Education Corps" with the end, among other things, to strengthen teacher training. Thus, the opposing positions.

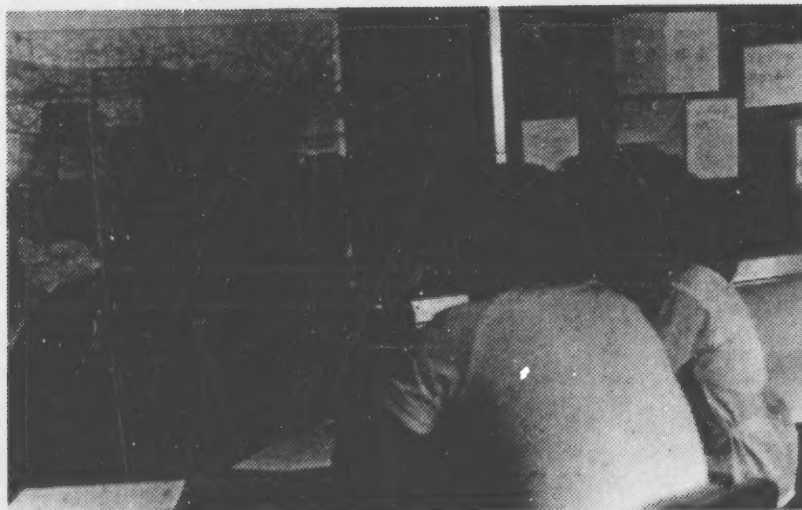
Given the present edu-political environment, how can teachers move from the historical role of reactivity to one of pro-activity? First, as was suggested by Dr. Phillip Fitch (1983), teacher educators must view this turmoil as a potential climate for change in the positive sense. It is essential that while conceding that there is adequate room for improvement, teacher educators emphasize that they want to become partners in change. Along those same lines, it is necessary for teacher educators to stop being apologists for the profession and to articulate, loudly, the positive contributions they are making. Second, in the opinion of this writer, it is essential that the teacher educators unite behind one professional organization and support it completely and generously. Given the dynamics of politics on "the Hill", nothing less than a highly skilled, adequately financed lobby effort, supported by sound facts and figures, can communicate the wants and needs of the profession to the policy makers in the Federal government. Granted, as Shucster observes, "...the 'track record' of education interest groups generally has not been inspiring, and past performance is the best predictor of future outcomes..." (1982, p. 588); however, through selection of one organization and through realigning resources so that a major thrust is in the area of representing the profession in Washington, a new direction could be charted.

Third, as a response to the decentralization of government which appears to be an increasing phenomenon, teacher educators must mobilize on both the state and local level. Through state and local chapters of the national organization, larger blocks of professionals, presenting a unified front, could gain success. With a strong research function on this level, the organization could provide state and local leaders, who usually lack research staffs, with "hard information" about educational issues. Through this process, the organization gains credibility, and the gaining of a degree of dependence by legislators is particularly useful and effective.

Finally, and certainly most important, those involved with teacher education must develop a new attitude about themselves and about their profession. Traditionally, educators have been reluctant to become involved in the very issues that determine the fate of their lives and the well-being of their profession. Too often, the educator has been willing to abdicate his/her role as expert to the will of the non-professional, frequently the uninformed. Unless each and every educator vows to become personally responsible for his/her own profession, conditions will remain about the same as they have in the past.

Summary

In spite of the political rhetoric to the contrary, there is much evidence that, though concerned about such matters as discipline and declining test scores, though unsure of education in general, most Americans are basically satisfied with their own schools (Gallup, 1982, p. 46). A recent and exhaustive survey conducted by the Gallup agency also revealed that most Americans still equate education to success (1982, p. 46). And, most encouraging of all, the 1982 Gallup poll identified "the quality of the teacher" first and "the teacher's interest" second (selected from eighteen possible choices) when asked what they liked best about the schools their children attended (p. 47). These revelations should give teacher educators hope. There is a foundation upon which to build. It is therefore crucial for each teacher educator to assume responsibility for the entire profession. The message must be broadcast loud and clear: "Teacher Education is Alive and Vital in the 1980's!"



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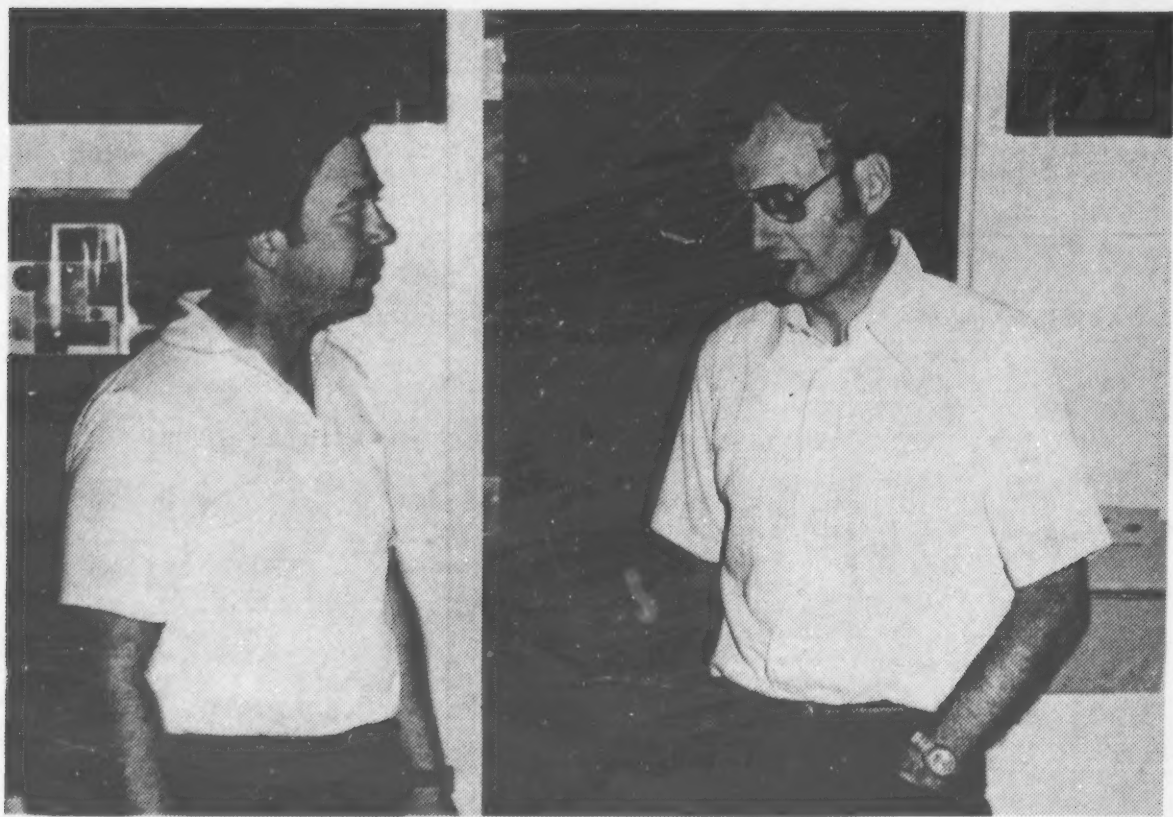
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CHAPTER VII

INDIVIDUAL REPORTS

Ruth Anderson	"Proposal for Improvement of Recruitment Selection and Retention Policies and Practices for the Teacher Education Program at The School of the Ozarks"
William Chance	"A State Searches for a Better Way to Teach"
Tom Detwiler	"It's Time for a Planned Program of Teacher Recruitment"
Maryann Ehle and Gray Williamson	"Revitalization of the Curriculum: Positive Acculturation of Ageism Through Literature"
Jim Gage	"Impact of Change on Faculty"
Juanita Kirk	"The Governance Unit in Teacher Education Institutions"
Vince Mahoney	"Individualizing Secondary Student Teacher Lesson Plans- An Action Research Plan"
Tom Mertens	"Alternate Designs for Capturing and Holding Student Interest in a Required Course for Secondary School Biology Teaching Majors"
John McLevie	"Structure and Functions of a Teacher Education Unit"
Lou Pollock	"Revitalizing Teacher Education Through Research: Implications of a Study at Northern Arizona University"
Jimmie Russell	"Pre-Student Teaching Field Experience"
Henry Worrest	"A Challenge to Standards: Legislation for the Handicapped"



PROPOSAL FOR IMPROVEMENT OF RECRUITMENT,
SELECTION AND RETENTION POLICIES AND PRACTICES FOR THE TEACHER
EDUCATION PROGRAM AT THE SCHOOL OF THE OZARKS

by
Ruth G. Anderson

Introduction

This proposal is an outgrowth of participation of the author in the 1983 North Central Association Teacher Education Project Workshop held July 17-August 5, 1983, in Flagstaff, Arizona. It incorporates ideas gleaned from a review of the literature, from interaction with other workshop participants, and from the author's personal involvement in program planning and on-going assessment of program needs in teacher education programs at the institutional level.

As a preliminary activity to writing this proposal, the author asked representatives of institutions represented at the 1983 workshop to complete a survey indicating screening practices and procedures used in their respective institutions for admitting students to teacher education programs and to student teaching. The findings are summarized and included in Table 7.1. They serve as a point of reference in making proposals for change, and they illustrate commonalities and differences which exist regarding selection of students for teacher education programs.

TABLE 7.1

SCREENING PRACTICES AND PROCEDURES USED FOR ADMISSION
TO TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMS AND TO STUDENT TEACHING
IN SELECTED COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES

BY
Ruth G. Anderson
School of the Ozarks

(Summary of a survey completed by participants of the NCA Teacher Education Project Workshop
held in Flagstaff, Arizona, July 17-August 5, 1983)

REQUIREMENTS FOR ADMISSION TO TEACHER EDUCATION			REQUIREMENTS FOR STUDENT TEACHING	
INSTITUTION	GPA	Other Requirements	GPA	Other Requirements
ANDERSON COLLEGE	2.25	Recommendations of: Advisor; Department Chairman; Chairman Education Department "C" or better grades in Gen. Psych, Writing, Oral Expression and Math; Personal character- istics a consideration if problem arises	2.25	Recommendations of: Advisor; Department Chairman; Director of Student Teaching
ARKANSAS STATE UNIVERSITY	2.2	Recommendations of: Advisor; Chairman Major Dept. Passing attention to personal characteristics	2.1 Ovr. 2.5 mjr.	Recommendations of: Advisor; Chairman Major Dept.
BALL STATE UNIVERSITY	2.1	Identification with Teacher Education Program An "alert sheet" is used to monitor progress; lists are distributed to departments, deans--people on teaching curriculum	2.5 El. 2.4 Sec. 2.5 Grad	Clearance from: Advisor; Chairman Major Dept. Student Affairs, Speech and Hearing Clinic; Department Major/Minor Personal interviews by student Teaching Faculty

CHADRON STATE COLLEGE	2.0	Three recommendations from community; 15 residence hours; health clearance	2.25	Recommendations of: Advisor; Chairman Major Dept; Three recommendations from Faculty; Screening Committee Approval
GEORGE MASON UNIVERSITY	2.5	Locally-developed competency tests in math and literacy Recommendation of: Advisor; Department Chair; Interview & written statement	Uncertain	Recommendations of: Advisor; Chair Major Dept. Completion of Prerequisites
IOWA WESLEYAN COLLEGE	2.0	Recommendations of: Advisor; Dept. Chair; Education Dept. Chair; College Teacher Ed Committee A continuous progress report (checklist with 5 choices on each of 50 questions completed by 3 faculty members each year during sophomore and junior years)	2.3	Recommendations of: Advisor; Chair Major Dept; Chair Education Dept; Teacher Education Committee
MONTANA STATE UNIVERSITY *(Secondary Ed.)		Open admissions policy	2.0 Ovr. 2.2. Major Minor	Recommendations of: Advisor No grade lower than "C" in professional education coursework
NORTHERN ARIZONA UNIVERSITY	2.5	Completion of 60 hrs. college coursework; file formal application; ATPE(Arizona Teacher Professional Exam - Pass basic skills portion) Recommendations of: Academic Dept (Secondary) Practicum in soph/jr year used to screen; 2 basic Eng. courses; 1 basic math course; 1 speech course; grade of "C" or better in each.	2.5	Recommendations of: Major Dept. (Secondary) "C" or better in all education courses

OKLAHOMA BAPTIST UNIVERSITY	2.5	English proficiency exam; Recommendations of: Advisor plus 3 past profs. Interview with committee of three members of Teacher Education Committee; demon- strate ability to communicate orally; evidence of past work with youth	2.5 Ovr	Recommendations of: Advisor and 3 professors
SAN DIEGO STATE UNIVERSITY *(5th year program)	3.0 major 2.75 Ovr	CBEST (Calif. Basic Essential Skills Test) Recommendations of: Advisor Written autobiography Interviews for special appeals Fingerprinting, criminal record; Calif. State Laws		Recommendation of Education Advisor (Department professor)
THE SCHOOL OF THE OZARKS (Missouri)	2.2	ACT (Criterion level to be established) Recommendations of: Advisor; Chair Major Dept; Teacher Ed. Comm. Represen- tative; Teacher Ed. Committee Formal application with written statement Orientation course and exploratory field experience	2.5 major 2.5 ovr.	Recommendations of: Advisor; Chair Major Dept. Teacher Education Committee Representative; Teacher Education Committee
UNIVERSITY NORTH CAROLINA GREENSBORO	2.2.*	* Some programs require 3.0 GPA on specified course sequences Core battery of NTE (Fall of 83) Recommendations of: Advisor; Chair Major Dept. Speech screening test - articu- lation; Organization and presentation of thoughts considered	2.2*	Recommendations of: Advisor; Chair Major Dept. Coordinator of Field Exper- iences (verification of data)

WEST LIBERTY
STATE COLLEGE

2.0

Recommendations of:
Advisor; Chair Major Dept
Education Dept Endorsement
Chairman;
Personal interviews;
Recommendations; Professional/
Campus Activities; Knowledge;
Achievement; Personal
Individual and Group Inter-
active Skills; Professional
attitudes; Organismic health

2.0

Recommendations of:
Advisor; Chair Major Dept.
Endorsement of Education Dept.
Faculty;
Personal Interviews (Chair,
Director Student Teaching
Recommendations

THE PROPOSAL

Recruitment Checkpoint

1. Contact counselors in secondary schools which supply majority of our students. Supply program information; provide information concerning contact person for further information or school visits; invite student visits to campus, individually or in groups; cite employment statistics of graduates from teacher education; and request that referrals for teacher education be made primarily from students who are in the top third of the graduating class academically.
2. Continue practice of writing personal letters to secondary students who express interest in the college and in teacher education and who have composite ACT scores of 20 or above.
3. Continue practice of providing tour of the department and the college to interested secondary students.
4. Continue to provide support services to elementary and secondary schools upon request as an indirect means of recruiting.

Admission to College Checkpoint

1. Continue to include information concerning teacher education programs in the registration packets of incoming freshmen. Revise the information sheet to suggest an early conference with education department personnel concerning career opportunities and education programs offered in addition to the suggestion currently made that interested students enroll in Education 101, Orientation to Teaching, during the first or second semester of attendance.
2. Encourage the Student-Missouri State Teachers Association chapter on campus to hold an early-Fall reception each year, inviting all potential education majors to attend. Invite potential majors to attend the first few meetings of the S-MSTA group before a decision about membership is made.

Sophomore Year Checkpoint

The student should make formal application for admission to the teacher education program after having completed at least 30 semester hours (or one semester in residence, if a transfer student). Prerequisites for consideration for admission by the Teacher Education Committee include:

1. A formal written application will be submitted through Advisor to Teacher Education Committee Representative from major

field of study (includes informal advisement interview with committee representative);

2. ACT scores must be on file with Education Department Chairman (Scores of those who entered The School of the Ozarks as freshmen will be on file; transfer students must arrange to take the ACT through the Office of Career Development prior to applying for admission to the teacher education program). ACT scores must meet minimum standards effective at time of application (directly or through approved alternatives);

3. Overall grade point average (GPA) must meet or exceed minimum standards in effect at time of application (currently 2.2);

4. Oral communications competencies must be demonstrated to the satisfaction of the major department (usually through interview); since the student may change major or add teaching fields after admission to the program, the Teacher Education Committee will also consider oral communications competencies as demonstrated by the student during coursework and in informal communications with faculty members of the various departments;

5. Competencies in written communications must be evidenced by:

- a. A well-written statement by the applicant of 100 or more words to be submitted with the formal application for admission. The statement is to be written under education department or major department supervision and under conditions specified by the Teacher Education Committee. The statement is to be read by 3 members of the Teacher Education Committee, who will make recommendations deemed necessary regarding deficiencies noted (the major department may make additional recommendations);
- b. ACT score of at least _____ in English (minimum level to be established by Teacher Education Committee with higher levels to be set by major departments if deemed desirable by the department); and student may retake ACT one time following coursework taken to improve competencies.
- c. Other methods which may be devised and approved by the Teacher Education Committee to supplement or replace the above minimum requirements.

6. Competencies in mathematics must be evidenced by:

- a. ACT score of at least _____ in mathematics (minimum level to be established by Teacher

Education Committee with higher levels set by major departments if deemed desirable by the department); and student may retake ACT one time following coursework taken to improve competencies.

- b. Completion of 7 (or more) semester hours of mathematics (to include mathematics for elementary teachers) with a minimum GPA (applies only to elementary education majors);

7. Recommendations of:

- a. Academic Advisor
- b. Chairman of Major Department
- c. Two community references (supplied for freshmen at time of admission to college; transfer students must request these to be sent to the Education Department Chairman);

8. Clearance through:

- a. Teacher Education Committee Representative in major field
- b. Dean of Students
- c. Others (to be determined on individual basis as need arises)

9. Evidence of successful completion of:

- a. Education 101 - Orientation to Teaching
- b. Education 111 - Classroom Observation

Note: Concurrent enrollment may suffice for transfer students whose scheduling of courses might otherwise be seriously disrupted by waiting to apply for admission.

Major responsibility for screening at the point of admission to the teacher education program falls upon the academic advisor and the chairman of the major department. The Advisor should monitor ACT scores, academic performance, and observe for evidence of physical, social, or emotional characteristics which may indicate areas for concern.

The Teacher Education Committee should consider each applicant with due care, addressing any questions which seem relevant, and then take one of the following official actions:

- 1. Approve the applicant for admission to the teacher education program;

2. Defer action on the application for admission pending the removal of specific deficiencies or the meeting of specified criteria;* or
3. Disapprove the application with reasons stated in terms of program criteria. *

* At the discretion of the Teacher Education Committee judgements based upon subjective assessments may be discussed privately with the applicant by a designated representative of the Teacher Education Committee (ordinarily the Chairman of the Committee or the Teacher Education Committee Representative from the major field represented).

The applicant will be notified in writing by the Committee Chairman of action taken by the Teacher Education Committee within 5 days of the official meeting; a copy of the notification will be sent to the applicant's academic advisor. The student has the right of appeal (See page 183 of this report).

Continuous Progress Assessment

Upon acceptance into the teacher education program, the student should enter into a contract with the major academic department. Those pursuing programs leading to teaching certification in more than one field should consult with the Certification Officer for additional advisement.

The academic advisor should monitor progress of the student throughout the program and should be alert to any problems or potential problems which may appear in academic performance, physical health, and social or emotional areas. Help or advisement at strategic times may preclude the development of serious problems which may delay or prevent program completion. The advisor should be especially cognizant of the need to assist in identifying ways and means of correcting any deficiencies which were noted at the time of application for admission to the program or those which could develop during the interval between admission and application for student teaching.

Student Teaching Checkpoint

Student teaching is normally done during the final semester of the student's 4-year program (exceptions may be granted by the Teacher Education Committee for students who can complete course requirements during the Summer Session immediately following a Spring Semester student teaching assignment if Summer Session courses are only indirectly applicable to probable success in student teaching).

Formal application for permission to do student teaching should be made no later than:

1. September 1 - if the student proposes to do student teaching during the ensuing Spring Semester; or
2. February 1 - if the student proposes to do student teaching during the ensuing Fall semester (or Summer Session, if applicable).

Prerequisites for consideration by the Teacher Education Committee for permission to do student teaching include:

1. Formal written application submitted through Advisor and Major Department Chairman to Teacher Education Committee Representative from the major department;
2. Scheduling plan leading to successful completion of all other teaching certification and degree requirements in one major teaching field prior to student teaching semester (see paragraph 1 for possible exception);
3. Submission of current transcript of credits (including listing of courses in which presently enrolled), copy of contract in major field, and certification being sought to Certification Officer for review;
4. Overall and departmental major GPA minimum standards met (currently 2.5 minimum for each);
5. Notarized affidavit of moral character filed with Certification Officer;
6. Evidence of correction of any deficiencies identified at time of admission to the program (or those which may have developed or become apparent during progress through the program);
7. Recommendations of:
 - a. Academic Advisor (should address #6 in recommendation)
 - b. Major Department (Department Chairman)
 - c. Education Department (Chairman)
8. Clearance through:
 - a. Representative of major field on Teacher Education Committee
 - b. Dean of Students
 - c. Career Development Officer (Placement files should have been initiated).

- d. Others - to be determined on individual basis as need arises.

Major responsibility for screening at the point of application for student teaching rests with the academic advisor and the chairman of the major department. Advisement related to certification, particularly when more than one teaching field is represented, will be the responsibility of the certification officer. The advisor and the student should check the projected schedule for course completion against remaining contractual requirements to insure that the student has requested placement for student teaching during the appropriate semester. The GPA in the major field and overall should be checked by the advisor and the certification officer; however, it is the responsibility of the student to insure accuracy of the transcript. Failure to meet minimum standards will result in delay or cancellation of student teaching, since it is assumed by the Teacher Education Committee and the certification officer that all standards will be met by the student.

Official action by the Teacher Education Committee will consist of one of the following:

1. Approval for student teaching;
2. Deferred action on the application for student teaching pending;
- _____ ; or
3. Denial of approval for student teaching.

Applicants for student teaching will be notified in writing by the Chairman of action taken by the Teacher Education Committee no later than 5 days following the official meeting; a copy of the notification will be sent to the applicant's academic advisor. The student has the right of appeal (See page 182 of this report).

Progress During Student Teaching

The notification of action taken on application for student teaching will also contain notification to those students approved for student teaching of at least two required meetings to be attended during the semester prior to student teaching. Failure to attend these required professional meetings may result in delay or cancellation of student teaching placement. The purposes of the meetings are:

1. First Meeting - to obtain information from the student teacher to permit appropriate placement and to make necessary plans for the student teaching semester; and

2. Second Meeting - to provide professional orientation for student teachers.

Individual conferences and additional group meetings may be called at the discretion of the Chairman of the Education Department. Meetings are conducted by Education Department personnel. It is the responsibility of the prospective student teacher to follow through on student teaching requirements and procedures in keeping with program guidelines presented during the group meetings and individual conferences and through written materials presented to the student teacher as part of the program design.

Supervision of the student teacher during the period of student teaching is primarily the responsibility of the public school cooperating teacher. This teacher is asked to provide on-going feedback to the student teacher concerning progress in several areas of competency and professionalism as identified on a checklist. The first formal evaluation is done mid-way through the student teaching experience and the second formal evaluation occurs at the end of the experience. In each instance, the cooperating teacher is asked to review the evaluation with the student teacher before sending the completed checklist and comments to the college (Department of Education). The college supervisor also visits the student teacher (number of visits varying depending upon distance from campus) and confers with school administrators, cooperating teachers, and student teacher during the student teaching experience. The college supervisor is also available for telephone conferences and for additional visits to the school as needed. The student teacher is advised as to evaluative procedures and devices to be used by the cooperating teacher and that the final grade for the course is the responsibility of the college supervisor. The student is asked to complete a self-evaluation form at the conclusion of student teaching, as well.

Certification Checkpoint

A final checkpoint for quality control is made by the certification officer prior to recommending the student to the state for certification in appropriate teaching fields and levels. The final transcript must show that:

1. all degree requirements have been met (catalog requirements in general education and major are checked by advisor);
2. professional education courses and procedural requirements have been met (specific course requirements are checked against requested teaching certification fields and levels by certification officer);
3. major teaching field course requirements and add-on certification area(s) course requirements

- have been met (checked by certification officer);
4. grade point standards have been met in accordance with both state and institutional criteria (2.5 minimum cumulative GPA currently required by State of Missouri; 2.5 GPA in major and overall currently required for permission to student teach with minimum 2.5 GPA overall required for recommendation for certification).

Right of Appeal

The student may appeal all decisions of the Teacher Education Committee which relate to admission to the teacher education program or to student teaching within 15 days of the official notification sent by the Chairman of the Committee to the student concerning action taken by the Committee. Such appeal must be in writing with the original going to the Chairman of the Teacher Education Committee and a copy to the Academic Advisor of the student.

Upon receipt of an appeal, the Chairman of the Teacher Education Committee must call a special meeting of the Committee with notification to the student and Academic Advisor of date, time, and place of such special meeting. The meeting will be held at an early date (within 15 school days of receipt of the appeal by the Chairman, excepting unusual circumstances which might result in a request for delay by either the petitioner or the Committee). The student may request the attendance at the meeting of another student, a faculty member in his major department, or another faculty member or administrator of the college who is in a position to be able to offer evidence relevant to the concerns identified by the Teacher Education Committee which impacted upon the original decision.

The decision of the Committee on the appeal will be made by a simple majority vote of those present and voting a secret ballot. The decision shall be binding upon all parties concerned except that in all instances the laws of the State of Missouri and regulations of the Department of Elementary and Secondary Education of the School of the Ozarks will be followed.

Withdrawal from Teacher Education Program

Following admission to the teacher education program and/or approval for student teaching, it is the responsibility of the student to inform the academic advisor and the Chairman of the Education Department of any change of plans, i.e., transfer to another institution, withdrawal from the teacher education program or from student teaching, withdrawal from college, change of major teaching field, change in teaching certification fields or levels, including "add-ons"; or any other change related to plans for successful completion of the teacher education program. Failure to inform the advisor and Education

Department Chairman properly may result in problems at a later date should the student choose to resume the professional education program.

Withdrawal from student teaching should be a very rare occurrence; serious difficulties during student teaching may result in a request for withdrawal by either the student teacher or the college supervisor with placement during the same or a later semester possible in instances where problem areas can be remedied. The nature of the difficulties will be a major consideration in a determination of alternatives which may be available to the student teacher. The alternatives will be discussed between the student teacher and the Chairman of the Education Department, with others, including the college supervisor of student teaching, involved as needed. In all instances, the alternatives considered will be those most likely to insure that the student complete the program with competencies needed to practice successfully as a classroom teacher. In rare instances, the problems may be such as to result in voluntary withdrawal from the program by the student teacher or advisement into other career fields by the college supervisors.

Note: Proposal to be submitted to the Teacher Education Committee for consideration.



A STATE SEARCHES FOR A BETTER WAY TO TEACH

by
William Chance

The state of Arkansas has launched a sustained state-wide effort to secure better instruction in all the classrooms of the state. The vehicle that is being utilized is entitled the "*Program for Effective Teaching*." Teachers from all levels including kindergarten through university professors have participated in this program. Many school systems in the state now report that their entire faculties have received this training.

Programs for effective teaching always start with the presentation of the theoretical constructs that undergird the program which when taken in total form the total teaching act. The total teaching act is conceived as composed of a series of interrelated and interdependent components. These components consist of: mastering of content, planning skills, the ability to select and utilize appropriate materials and resources, classroom management skills, instructional skills and human relations skills. All of these components are further conceived as resting on a base of knowledge of human growth and development.

Once this model has been presented, attention is rapidly shuffled to focus on one aspect of the construct, that of instructional skills. The justification for such focusing is that activities that fall into this category constitute the major vehicle through which other aspects of the theoretical construct manifest themselves. The instructional skills component consists of five major skills which constitute the woof and warp of the fabric of instruction. These skills are:

1. The ability to select the correct objective on the appropriate level of complexity and difficulty for every learner.
2. The ability to teach to the objective in an effective, efficient, and relevant manner.
3. The ability to secure and maintain attending behavior of the learner throughout the course of the lesson.
4. The ability to monitor and/adjust teaching behavior in relation to learner feedback.
5. The ability to consciously select and apply appropriate principles of learning in the course of the lesson while avoiding the abuse of these principles.

It should become immediately obvious that improvement in any one of these skills would impact instructional behavior in a significantly positive way. Each of these skills is somewhat like an iceberg. What is not immediately visible is vastly more complex than what is immediately apparent. Take the first instructional skill for example. In the past teachers have attempted to determine the correct instructional objective for an individual pupil or a group of learners in one or more of the following ways:

1. The teacher would simply observe pupil performance and infer from such observation what to do next.
2. The teacher might conduct some type of testing either of a formal or informal nature.
3. The teacher might refer to anecdotal records forwarded from former teachers to guide her in her instructional decisions.
4. The teacher might simply hold to grade level expectations developed in a course of study. This is the 4th grade and they will darn well meet the standards.
5. The teacher might refer to some type of skills continuum and attempt to plug the learner into the sequence.

The program for effective teaching emphasizes the utilization of a skills continuum when it is available and the use of task analysis procedure when it is not. The program does not rule out the use of other tried and true approaches but emphasis is given to the development of this skill. The real artistry of teaching lies in selecting learning experiences for children that are appropriate in terms of the sequence of development of identified skills and understandings; the selection of experiences that challenge the learner; and the selection of experiences that the learner has a reasonably high probability of successfully accomplishing.

The appropriate level of complexity and difficulty raises another whole host of problems and considerations. Attention must be given to the thinking level required for the material being covered. The degree of concreteness or abstractness of the instruction. The methods or strategy used to instruct the learner and the nature of the performance criteria specified in the objective. At about this point one may begin to wonder if initiating instruction involves this many decisions and considerations how does anyone ever get it underway. It is not unlike the construction of a tamper proof car. It is probably possible to do this but starting it could become so complex that it would take a half a day to do it, hence, no one would ever get it out of the driveway. The program for effective teaching is not advocating anything this extreme. What this approach does advocate is maintaining the integrity of Dewey's admonition-where

do you start? Where they are at.

The second instructional skill involves teaching to the objective in an effective, efficient, and relevant manner. This has a nice ring to it - a little like a political slogan. And once again we have the iceberg phenomenon in effect. To teach to the objective in an effective way in its simplest terms means that one has in due course accomplished the instructional objective that has been identified. In its most exaggerated application I guess it could take a lifetime. The acid test being proof that one did finally accomplish what one set out to do. The second element of this skill mandates that one do it efficiently which changes the whole ballgame. Now one must accomplish the identified instructional task but with the least expenditure of time and energy necessary. The third element that rounds out this skill focuses on one of those buzz words that have been around for a long time - that of relevancy. This skill requires that not only must instruction get where it is going with the least expenditure of time and energy, but it must make sense to the learner in terms of the experimental bank he has to draw from. Precious little instruction today consistently meets these three criteria.

The third instructional skill identified by the program for effective teaching involves the ability to secure and maintain attending behavior throughout the course of the lesson. Observers who have spent the better part of a lifetime intensively observing instruction report that they have seldom if ever, seen an occasion where all the learners attended to the instructional process all of the time. What we have in the third instructional skill is a goal that we probably never will achieve but which we must constantly strive to gain. What we are attempting to do is to increase the time on target for each learner. The underlying assumption being if this occurs positive results will accrue for the learner.

The fourth instructional skill involves the ability to monitor and adjust teaching behavior in terms of learner feedback. This may entail the adjustment of such things as pace-speed-up-slow-down, reexplanation, presentation of different examples, additional clarification, and anything else it takes to bring the learners along. The important thing is that the teacher be able to read the groups and make satisfactory adjustments in teaching behavior. All too often what one observes is the snow plow effect when the teacher sets her sights on a target and plows on to her destination regardless of the feedback she is getting from students.

The fifth instructional skill involves the ability to consciously select and apply appropriate principles of learning while avoiding the abuse of these principles. The institutions of higher education that train teachers and the accreditation

agencies that monitor and guide their efforts still seem to have an implicit faith in learning theory and its general applicability. This implicit faith may not be so widely shared by practicing professionals. They have been bombarded over the years by confusing and often contradictory statements that are supposed to guide their efforts in structuring learning experiences. The net effect of this has been the gradual development of an attitude that could be summed up as "I don't have time for learning principles, I'm too busy teaching". The program for effective teaching does not attempt to counter this developing attitude by identifying and stressing meaningful ways that learning principles may be applied to enhance learning outcomes.

The proof of any dish lies in the ultimate test involving questions such as: is it attractive, how does it taste, is it nutritious, and is it affordable? The culmination of the recipe for the program for effective teaching is the lesson itself. A half century or more of confusing terms, doubletalk and questionable conclusions leaves us with a moderate consensus on how one might categorize the activities that go into a lesson and little else. There seems to be some degree of agreement that the activities that constitute a lesson can be grouped under three broad headings: those activities that center about introducing the lesson; those activities designed to maintain student interest, attention, and secure pupil involvement; and finally, those activities that provide reinforcement, synopsis or closure. The program for effective teaching as conducted in Arkansas divides the lesson into three broad categories: (1) set; (2) teaching to the objective; (body) and, (3) closure. These parts are often presented as if they exist along a lesson line although in truth they may not function entirely in a linear way at all. It is convenient to present it in this way just for the sake of simplicity and clarity.

The initial part of any lesson seen from this particular point of view involves set. The major purpose of set is to develop anticipation for the learning that is starting. It's a little like a track meet when the word is passed the "gun is up" meaning prepare to start. Minimally set would involve some type of statement relative to the objectives of the lesson, activities designed to relate the lesson to past learnings and activities designed to involve the learners in the lesson. Set may be quite extensive if study of a new and extensive area is being undertaken or it may be rather brief and sketchy if this lesson is for practical purposes just a continuation of a previous one.

The body of the lesson or teaching to the objective involves four subcomponents: explanation, questioning, responding to the learner in terms of the learning and activities. Explanation as used in this approach has a rather broad connotation and refers to information processing. One type of explanation from this frame of reference simply involves the use of the textbook for reading or re-reading to find specific information. The use

of lecture augmented with tapes, films, records, film strips would also fit into this category. A second category of explanation centers about definitions. These activities evolve about the clarification of new words, terms and concepts that were previously identified by the teacher in the planning aspect of the lesson. A third category of explanation involves the clarification of steps or processes involved in the material that is being taught. A fourth aspect of explanation centers about the use of models which may range from concrete or real things on one hand to pictures or simply verbal constants on the other. Finally explanation may center about examples.

Closely aligned with explanation and interwoven with the other aspects of the body of the lesson are the questioning activities of the teacher. Questioning serves several useful purposes and attention is focused on this activity in the program for effective teaching. This activity can aid the teacher in making periodic ongoing assessments to determine if the learners are moving on target. It also allows the teacher to adjust the lesson to the differing abilities of the students involved by adjusting the difficulty of the questions to various students. Finally, questioning is a way to promote student involvement in the learning and enhance student attending behavior. Responding to the learner in terms of the learning involves keeping the lesson on track. Many students are quite accomplished at leading the class off into the "wild blue yonder".

The final aspect of the body of the lesson involves activities. This approach divides activities into two aspects: those the teacher guides or directs and those the pupils do independently. The culminating activities are frequently termed closure activities. These are activities that tie the learnings together, provide opportunities for the application of the learning and in some instances, provide for insightful extension of the learning.

All of this may sound pretty good as an expression of what educators would like to accomplish in improving instruction. But what are some of the hallmarks one would look for if the process has really been effective? Some of the salient characteristics one would look for in an effective, efficient, and relevant presentation would include teacher behavior that:

1. generates some enthusiasm for the material to be taught;
2. organizes and conducts the lesson in what appears to be some type of logical sequential order;
3. gives clear, complete and accurate explanations that are relevant to the objectives;

4. utilizes a variety of teaching/learning activities at a challenging pace;
5. generates relevant questions throughout the lesson posed on a variety of levels;
6. receives learner questions comfortably, answers them clearly and completely and deals with non-relevant questions and comments effectively;
7. provides sufficient dependent and independent activities that are relevant to the objective and move the learner toward mastery of the material;
8. makes essential adjustments when learner's behavior indicates lack of desired progress toward the objective;
9. effectively ties the elements of the lesson together and guides the pupils in identifying the crucial elements they should have learned in the lesson.

If one were to accomplish all these good things it would certainly impact the total teacher preparation program both in its conceptualization and in the delivery system utilized.

This is precisely what is happening in the state of Arkansas. The program for effective teaching is impacting the pre-service teacher education programs conducted in the state as they strive to include all the components in their curricula. The program is also impacting in-service programs as massive efforts are being made to retrain the entire teaching force in the state utilizing this model. Finally, a design for student teaching evaluation, as well as faculty evaluation is evolving. For the first time in the state all levels of the profession have a common language and a common base to proceed from. *The Arkansas Program for Effective Teaching* holds great promise for improvement of the educational process in this particular state.

IT'S TIME FOR A PLANNED PROGRAM OF TEACHER RECRUITING

by

Tom Detwiler

After interviewing teacher educators from selected institutions and reviewing the available literature, this writer is convinced that few colleges and universities have a planned program to recruit candidates for the profession. In instances where recruiting efforts do exist to attract applicants, the data suggests that such efforts are usually tied to the general recruiting program of the college or university at large (Recruiting Survey, NCA Workshop, 1983), and not to a planned, directed program aimed at attracting qualified applicants for teaching. Indeed, even when teacher recruiting efforts are connected to the overall institutional program, the emphasis given to the profession is minimal and tends to become absorbed along with numerous other courses of study being presented by the college recruiters. In some cases, unfortunately, recruiters who do attempt to present the profession have not been directly associated with the teacher education program on campus, have not ever taught in the classroom, and may not necessarily be pro-teaching.

Interestingly, while the literature frequently refers to the need for better recruitment techniques and strategies on the part of teacher training institutions, not one comprehensive or planned program could be identified. For example, several authors either implied or directly stated that little was being done on the part of institutions to attract qualified applicants, but they fell short of delineating comprehensive institutional programs to address the problem (Watts, 1980, p. 120; Weller, 1981, p. 3; Simon, 1981, p. 4; Lamen and Reeves, 1982, p. 42; Schlechty and Vance, 1982.)

In many of the above studies, the authors frequently cited low salaries as the major obstacle to attract talented people into the profession, associating low salaries to a poor image, low prestige, etc. One exception to the above, however, was Ocker (1983, p. 215) who stated:

One way would be to sell the notion to college students that although teaching salaries and prestige are not the best, the rewards of helping students to be successful and appreciation that students and their parents have for good teaching are more than enough reward for a job well done.

Ocker went on to say that education should include all aspects of the media to advertise the profession, utilize testimonies of parents, students, and teachers (Ibid, p. 217).

A PROPOSAL

Sufficient evidence exists which suggests that a model "state-of-the-art" for recruiting is needed; therefore, the writer proposes that each teacher preparation institution consider adopting a broad, comprehensive plan that has as its major goal the recruitment of outstanding applicants to the teaching profession. The steps listed below are intended to be the framework by which the institution can develop its own teacher recruiting program, based on its own unique setting, characteristics, and objectives.

A Recruiting Philosophy

Prior to the development of any planned program of teacher recruitment, there must be recognition on the part of the institution that it must operate on the basis of a sound recruiting philosophy. Such a philosophy should be institution-wide in its formulation; otherwise it will appear as one department's, e.g., education, philosophy and be perceived narrowly, if not indifferently, by the other departments. To this end, the institution's president and other administrative officers should be involved in the formulation of the philosophy. Although the process will be cumbersome and time-consuming, efforts should be made to include input from various departments. By circulating rough drafts and consulting key personnel, the teacher education chairperson should be able to design a statement that addresses a number of questions, such as:

1. What does our institution believe about the teaching profession?
2. How important is the teacher education program on our campus?
3. What priority are we willing to assign teacher education?
4. To what extent is our institution willing to commit its resources to the active recruitment of candidates for the profession?

The importance of formulating a teacher recruitment philosophy cannot be understated; it will establish the institution's commitment to recruiting and will set the tone and sense of direction for the entire program.

Recruiting Objectives

Once the institution has agreed upon a recruiting philosophy, the next step is to identify appropriate objectives which reflect

the written philosophy. Again, the importance of the chairperson involving campus-wide personnel cannot be overstated. Indeed, the ultimate success or failure of the recruitment program may rest considerably upon the degree of involvement during the philosophy and objective stage. The objectives should address areas such as the:

1. characteristics, qualities, attributes, etc. that the institution seeks in its teacher applicants;
2. size and nature of the applicant pool;
3. overall involvement of the campus-at-large, as well as specific departments;
4. role of specific personnel in the recruiting program, e.g. department chairpersons; and
5. evaluation techniques to assess outcomes and propose changes.

Recruiting Techniques/Strategies

Once the institution has agreed to a statement of philosophy and objectives for its recruiting program, it can then begin to identify specific techniques or strategies which should serve to attract qualified applicants. The following are proposed, but are by no means intended to be all inclusive.

Visitations to Area Schools. While visitations to area schools for Career Days or Career Nights are certainly not a new idea, the fact that personnel oriented to teacher education would conduct the program can be said to give new emphasis. Teacher education faculty might also accompany the general recruiter to talk about teaching as a career.

Teaching Career Day. Working through area schools, the teacher education faculty invites selected students to campus for a "Teaching Career Day." Selection of students could be based on the recommendation of school principals, counselors, and teachers. Specific on-campus activities might include class visitations, panels of teacher education faculty and students, and a noon luncheon with a guest speaker.

Student Education Associations. Since most institutions have a Student Education Association Chapter, this organization could be active in assisting with the Teaching Career Day outlined above or working with local Future Teachers of American Chapters in each school district. The efforts of SEA's could be directed at establishing local FTA's in schools, and in communicating with FTA's to assist in promoting interest in teaching.

Personal Letters. Using computer print-outs to identify high school students who have indicated an interest in teaching, or who have high ACT scores, the teacher education faculty can write a personal letter not only to the students, but

also to their parents, encouraging them to consider teaching as a career and inviting them to the campus for an on-site visit.

Personal Visits. Utilizing the college supervisory staff, education departments could make personal contacts with promising high school seniors while on student teaching visitations. Although the contacts necessarily would have to be relatively short, provision for some type of follow-up could easily be made. The personal touch of such contacts provides a unique opportunity.

Brochures. Although the printing of quality materials for distribution and mailing can be a costly budget item, they nevertheless call attention to the profession. Materials might accompany the personal letter mentioned above, or the college supervisor could work through school counselors in seeing the materials were reaching students.

Scholarships. Not new to the teacher education program is the awarding of scholarships (based on a formula) to schools accepting student teachers. However, many institutions no longer insist that students who receive the scholarships must enter the teacher education program. By specifying that the scholarship is to be given to a highly qualified student who has declared an interest in teaching, the institution is showing its commitment to attracting top students to the profession.

Talent Search. Public schools and higher education institutions working together could seek to identify a select number of high school students for a special summer program in which the students take basic foundation courses in education, prior to the regular fall term. The summer program should be taught by the institution's best faculty, making use of outside resource personnel.

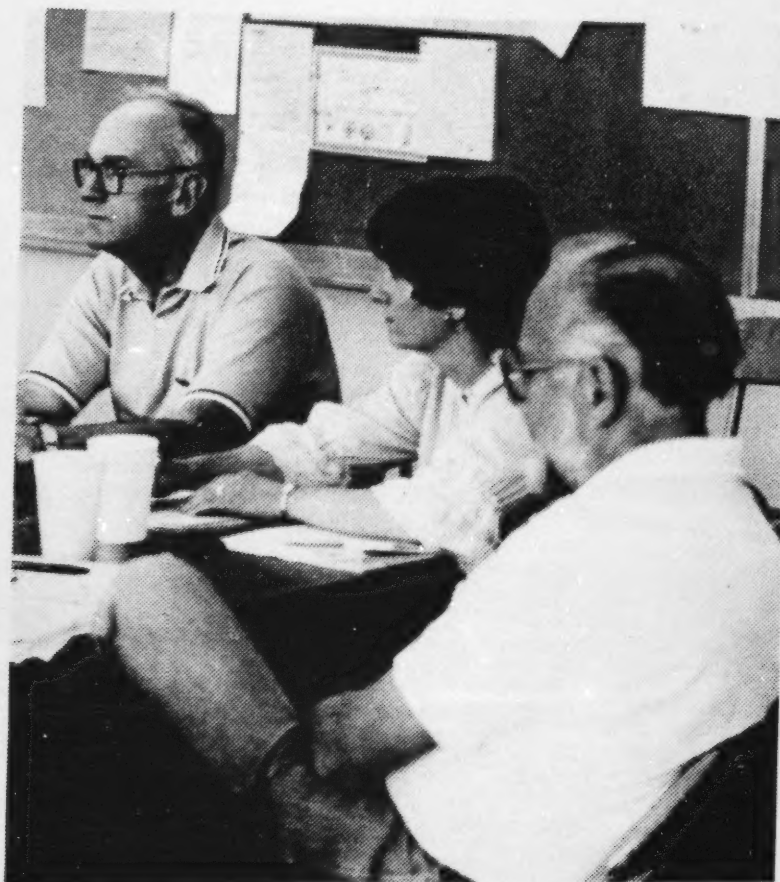
Ambassadors. Prior to the date just before student teachers enter the public schools, a time could be set aside to talk to the student teachers about their role as potential recruiters in the classroom.

Alumni Teachers. A letter or phone call to former graduates currently teaching in public or private schools could suggest ways and means for these former students to promote the profession to selected students in their own classrooms.

Careers in Education Course. Working closely with public schools, education departments could offer an on-site course to selected area students. Called "Careers in Education." The course would focus on the opportunities, benefits, rewards, etc. of the teaching profession and perhaps carry one-hour credit.

Communication. Since most institutions experience problems of communication, a provision should be made for departments on campus to alert the education department of promising students (high school or college) whom they have encountered. This strategy, of course, will be difficult to implement, given the times we are in; however, the point should be made that all departments have a stake in finding good teachers.

As a concluding note, it must be stressed again that no one institution will be able to make use of all the ideas mentioned. Some institutions may, in fact, find it difficult to implement even one or two. However, the point of this proposal is that each institution must adopt some kind of planned recruitment program, cooperatively developed, implemented, and evaluated. As is so frequently true, the best ideas will come from an institution's willingness to brain storm for those techniques and strategies that reflect its own uniqueness. The pay-off should be in better candidates, better teachers, and better schools.



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REVITALIZATION OF THE CURRICULUM: POSITIVE ACCULTURATION OF AGEISM THROUGH LITERATURE

by

Maryann J. Ehle
Gray Williamson

In any consideration of revitalizing education, attention must be given to the needs of the groups in society which are served. One group whose needs have been blatantly neglected is the elderly, the aged of our society. Like sexism and racism, ageism has become an unfortunate ideology that must be confronted by all professions, particularly education. Systematic stereotyping of and discrimination against people because they are old permeates all aspects of American life. It acculturates both the elderly and those who interact with them toward negative values and beliefs about being old.

Even though their numbers are growing, there is little evidence that older people are gaining sufficient attention. Medical, psychological, socio-economic, political, art and communications, and educational leaders are just beginning to address the aging process and the world of the elderly (Caravaglia, 1980; Berman, 1983; Curley, 1983; Butler and Lewis, 1977; de Boueaurvoir, 1972).

Clearly change is needed. Educational leaders must assume a strong position of leadership in addressing the phenomenon of increasing numbers of the elderly. The attitudes, beliefs, and values of the elderly toward themselves and of society toward the elderly must reach more positive levels. The nation, and particularly teacher education, must address the question, "How is it possible to acculturate positive beliefs, attitudes, and values toward the elderly and thereby counter ageism?" The writers of this paper are concerned with the processes of positive acculturation of attitudes about the elderly through the curriculum, specifically through literature. From the earliest oral tradition literature has proven to be one of the most powerful vehicles of acculturation of negative attitudes. When applied by educators, the processes of positive acculturation through literature can effect positive changes in attitudes, beliefs, and values of the elderly toward themselves and of others toward them.

The Process of Positive Acculturation

In an earlier article it was shown that the specific capacities of literature to acculturate positive understandings, values, and behaviors are many (Ehle, 1983). Literature provides a means for approaching the complexities and realities of life. Vicarious participation in the lives of literary characters, especially when those characters are perceived as models, may stimulate certain psychological processes which may lead to identification, emotional and cathartic insights, and more effective and humane coping behaviors. "Conflicts may be resolved, values clarified, understandings developed, by analyzing the similar conflicts and resolutions of literary characters." (Ehle, 1983)

Positive acculturation involves several important steps. First, it is important to exercise careful selection of literature which possesses the potential to acculturate positive images, values, and beliefs. Second, critical analysis directed by/with a skilled facilitator is essential to stimulate identification with strong heroes or heroines. Such an identification enables the reader to experience catharsis, to lessen a personal sense of isolation and difference from others and to elevate self-esteem if the character is admired. It leads him to accept himself and others, to satisfy needs, to confront fears, to increase understanding and compassion of human strengths and weaknesses. (Ehle, 1983)

Probably the most important component of the process of positive acculturation is critical analysis. "Because reading is a two-edged sword, cutting both ways, it is a matter of sober importance that the book be analyzed." As questions are explored, new associations are verbalized, new insights and values are evolved. Third and finally, creative expressions are essential to the internalization of the values, beliefs, and attitudes of the reader. Through such innovative expressions as creative drama, group talk, puppetry, pantomime, psychodrama and creative writing, the reader may internalize the behaviors, problem solutions, and conflict resolutions of the hero or heroine. Essentially, this is the heart of the positive acculturation process. (Ehle, 1983)

The Literature

The body of literature focusing on the elderly as strong, positive, main characters is relatively small. That small body which does exist reflects the lives of the elderly realistically, develops respect and compassion for older persons, motivates full exploration of the human potential of the elderly. As with all literature capable of positive acculturation, this somewhat sensitive body of literature on the elderly revolves around three major themes: (1) becoming of self, (2) developing positive human relationships, and (3) coping with the dynamic, changing world.

A number of these literary works develop strong, positive elderly main characters who serve as models which stimulate identification in other material. In identifying with elderly heroes and heroines who are worthy and contributing members of society, the aged reader undergoes a catharsis and begins to see him/herself in more creative and valuable ways.

Still other works of literature have the potential to acculturate positive attitudes, beliefs, values, and behaviors towards the elderly. Through identification with protagonists who, in turn, identify positively with elderly characters, the young or middle-aged reader can gain insights into and appreciations of the plight of the aged.

Another category of literary works possesses the power to acculturate both the elderly and those who interact with them in the process of accepting, initiating, or coping with change. The ultimate objective of positive acculturation is a change of values and beliefs which arises from identification and insight.

These categories are not mutually exclusive, and are sometimes found in combination within the same work. Works intended for adult, adolescent, and child readers all might potentially stimulate the elderly person, through the process of positive acculturation, to greater self-insights and self-esteem. Similarly, works at all three levels might acculturate both adult and child readers in the direction of more positive attitudes and behaviors towards the elderly. Likewise, the literature at all three levels might lead the older person beyond the accepting of change to becoming, in fact, a change agent. Those within his/her environment might, through this literature, learn to cope more effectively with the changes wrought by the aging process as well as design more appropriate solutions to the problems and resolutions to the conflicts of the elderly.

It is essential that members of the adult world be acculturated in compassion, understanding, and sensitivity toward the elderly, and that adolescents and young children, as well, develop positive values, beliefs, attitudes, and behaviors toward the aging. From literature, children, adolescents, and adults can discover the various ways people evolve into old age, and the varying profits of age. All three groups (children, adolescents, and adults) can develop graphic realizations of the terrible injustices involved in mistreatment of the elderly from literary works that portray old age with deep feeling, intricacy, and reality. Most important, one would hope that these readers can also acquire a more personal awareness that old age is an inevitable part of the future of those who are now young, and that persons of all age groups must be directly and personally involved in preserving the dignity of the old.

Once again, it is important to remember the crucial role played by the facilitator in leading the reader to identification, catharsis, and change of behavior. The art of the skillful teacher-facilitator can lead the reader to more positive values, beliefs, attitudes, and behaviors toward the elderly through various creative expressions which reinforce the insights gained.

(1) First, through creative drama, the reader, who may be part of a class or a member of a group, can play out a scene from the plot in which the hero or heroine exemplifies positive values, beliefs, and feelings. Or the reader may be directed toward creatively improvising alternatives to denouements of the conflict. Alternatives may be improvised, for example, for unpleasant or naturalistic parts of the plot which reflect negatively on the elderly. "Dramatizing the hero's or heroine's interactions within the plot, or alternatives to less-than-heroic actions, the reader lives the positive values, attitudes, and behaviors to be acculturated." (Ehle, 1983)

(2) Role playing is another process for reinforcing insights because it creates a way for readers to "get into another's shoes" and gain greater understanding and tolerance for how other people feel in different situations. Through reading and critical analysis of appropriate literature, the facilitator can initiate role plays involving age discrimination and can probe the feelings of all age groups represented and involved. Roleplay stimulates understanding of human emotion and suffering involving the participants in playing out conflict resolutions.

(3) Through the use of puppetry, the facilitator may employ a highly effective process by which the reactor may actually live the values, attitudes, beliefs, decisions, dilemmas, and behaviors to be acculturated. Puppetry is a total communications art which provides the reader a freedom which cannot be achieved when acting a part. Hans Schmidt observes: "The spontaneous reactions springing from the dynamics of puppetry can be used creatively to motivate (group or class members) to read, discuss, enact, creat, and enjoy literature." (Schmidt, 1975)

(4) Through the use of pantomime the reader is able to express without words through kinesic action and gesture only such things as (a) situations, (b) moods and feelings, (c) characterizations which occur within a book. "He also learns to better recognize and empathize with the physical expressions of human emotions and to better understand the character expressing those emotions." (Ehle, 1983)

(5) Finally, a facilitator may employ creative writing as a technique, encouraging the reader to rewrite an ending or a scene from a story or novel. The reader may transpose a particular scene from prose to drama or may wish to create a poetic form capturing his/her feelings or moods about the specific conflicts and crises involving the elderly.

These steps in the positive acculturation process possess the power to bring about positive acculturation toward the elderly among all groups. It is important that all members of all age groups realize that they too, one day, will be old. Hopefully, this realization will create a greater sensitivity to the problems of the aging.

One of the most graphic illustrations of the importance of a rationale for continuing to follow present practice is found in the old Hindu folktale, retold with many variations on the theme in all cultures, of the little boy who encounters his father toting a huge wicker basket. The father explains to his son his plans for the basket: "Since Grandfather is so old that he can no longer work in the garden or even take care of himself, I plan to put him in the basket and lower him into the river. Then he will no longer be a burden on us." The little boy contemplatively scrutinizes the basket and then responds to his father. "Be sure to return with the basket, Father; I may need it some day for you." (Sadker, 1977)



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IMPACT OF CHANGE ON FACULTY

by

Jim Gage

Strategies which are designed to promote professional development in faculty must take into account both professional and personal growth and change. The primary goal should be enhancing the strengths and expanding the interests of each individual.

In order for any institutional plan for faculty development to be effective, there must be congruence between institutional and individual views of needed growth and change. Where there are differences between the individual and the institution, careful negotiations must take place. The needs of individual faculty members can be met by adjusting the role expectations of the institutions. Role expectations should not be the same for all; they should be personalized to reflect each individual's unique cluster of skills, strengths, experiences and interests. A plan for faculty development will have its greatest impact when a wide range of values, skills, attitudes and experiences are encouraged and honored. When given reasonable opportunities, faculty will choose these opportunities.

A major issue to be dealt with is the recognition that change is threatening, even for the best teachers. Any successful plan must carefully consider the human part of this threat and develop processes which allow faculty opportunities to deal with the threat of change in ways that are healthy and growth producing. When we want people to change, we must engage their emotions. The desired change must be perceived as worthwhile to the individuals and not just something the institution seems to want. It must be recognized also that change occurs slowly, over time and that expectations of massive or significant changes happening quickly are doomed to failure.

When dealing with the psychology of change, Herzberg's theory of motivation may be helpful: His theory states in part that the things which bring us satisfaction are motivators and the things which bring dissatisfaction are called hygiene factors. Herzberg's motivators are achievement, recognition, work itself and responsibility. These factors are the ones which should be focused on as a way of bringing about faculty development that is satisfying to the individuals involved. Focusing on the hygiene factors (salary, working conditions,

interpersonal relationships, job security) will not bring satisfaction; it will only reduce dissatisfaction.

Problems of Institutional and Personal Implementation

The problems related to implementing a faculty development plan are as numerous and varied as the individuals and institutions involved in such a plan. Several problems which seem most important and pervasive will be discussed here. Before any faculty development plan can be successfully implemented, the individuals involved must perceive the emotional climate of the school/college/department to be one of trust, honesty and openness. Faculty must trust the motives of the plan to be those which truly support individual growth and change. If faculty see the plan as manipulative, dishonest or promoting only institutional goals, little real progress will be made. This factor can be a major stumbling block to initiating a faculty development plan and must be dealt with prior to implementation.

A related, but distinctly different problem, is one where there is a clash between institutional and individual goals. There must be congruence between the faculty member's view of the needed change and that of the institution. This may require considerable negotiation and must be done in an atmosphere of trust, respect for individual differences and honesty.

A major barrier to growth and change is the incredible conservatism of education faculty and the ossification of educational practice. It is ironic that persons who are essentially professional change agents are so resistant to change themselves. For many, the terminal degree seems to imply "I know it all; I don't have to change". Too many of us have become "artful dodgers" of necessary growth and development, hiding behind our sophisticated and fanciful intellectual obstructions.

Another barrier is the gap between evaluation practice and faculty development. Our system of evaluation should be the basis for faculty development. The public schools which are much more accountable for what they do than is higher education, do a far better job of faculty evaluation. Evaluation systems in higher education are minimal or nonexistent. We can't know what needs changing until we begin to develop thorough evaluation plans.

Two final problems or barriers to faculty development are the significant decrease in faculty mobility and the increasing rate of change in our society. Far fewer job opportunities in education and the need for active engagement in our disciplines make reeducation of faculty a difficult and complex task.

THE GOVERNANCE UNIT IN TEACHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS

by
Juanita Kirk

Extensive reassessment in teacher education has been occurring for years, but at a time when general criticism of public schools is heard every day, teacher education institutions can demonstrate a determination to support quality in education at all levels. Active involvement is needed if we must defend our positions toward change, and the best proof we have is our accrediting and professional associations. These associations serve as monitoring agents which promote positive change. They are composed of educators who are leaders in their institutions. Perhaps the best evidence we have of quality teacher education programs are those accredited by NCATE and/or members of AACTE and NEA. The voluntary aspects of these organizations, their standards which are directed toward quality in education, and their ability to convey information to the public should be part of the positive features toward change. The cooperative efforts of these organizations provide a network of information aimed at developing and improving personnel, programs, publications, and research. Visibility of quality practices is possible through this networking, and professional development is an area where individual achievement is evidenced.

Membership in professional organizations can provide specific standards of quality, provide assessment instruments through self-study practices, and keep teacher education institutions abreast of current, quality endeavors. However, autonomy must be vested in individual institutions for teacher education with programs which contain substance for training teachers. Under the aegis of a teacher education department, division, school, the individual institution can build on the standards of these professional organizations and continue to develop and enhance the quality of their programs.

Teacher education institutions have been challenged to create programs for excellence in educating potential teachers. It is their responsibility to maintain excellence within the program and develop specific guidelines and policies. One area of the teacher education sequence vital to ensuring quality within individual programs is the area of governance. Toward that end, teacher education units must maintain some form of governance "board, commission, committee" which continuously develops and monitors policy. For example, many teacher education institutions have identified the need for policy structures which deal with retention-withdrawal practices

in their programs, but have not documented their policies for availability to students entering their programs. Policy statements are often too brief or too vague and do not clearly spell out the requirements and procedures for their clientele. To be effective, monitoring instruments set by the boards or commissions must have specifically state practices before they can be utilized. To meet the standards set forth by the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE), teacher education institutions who desire to be accredited by NCATE should develop a model program for their individual needs and specify exactly how these standards are met at their institutions. In the area of governance, the individual institutions must show that they are addressing the changing climate for teacher education; they must prepare self-study documents of all phases of the institution, and they must qualify all aspects of this unit.

A format for organization should be established by the governance unit in each institution for teacher education. The purposes and goals of the self-study should be reviewed by each member who takes part in the self-study. When the governance unit is closely connected to the educational aspects of teacher training, a monitoring system of all available items will be more effective. The National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education has specific standards for the governance of basic programs. Their requirements specify organization and systematic approaches to self-study assessment instruments. This Association has also been in the process of proposed modifications to their standards, some of which are directly related to the governance area. Before an NCATE self-study is begun, it would be well to review the existing standards carefully and then look at the proposed modifications before they are adopted. Governance standards should provide for the following:

1. GOVERNANCE OF BASIC PROGRAMS

The quality of basic education programs depends upon the quality of faculty and students as well as on the content and design of the curricula. Although no particular organizational structure is prescribed for the governance of basic programs, some structure is expected to provide for a designated unit to ensure that all basic teacher education programs are organized, unified, and coordinated in consistent fashion. This unit constitutes a practical organizational arrangement for design, approving, and continuously evaluating and developing teacher education programs. The governing unit for basic programs may be a council, commission, committee, department, school, college, or other clearly specified, recognizable organizational entity. While major responsibility for these activities is carried by an officially designated unit, teacher education faculty members are systematically involved in the decision-making process.

1.1 Membership of the Governing Unit

The governing unit designated as responsible for teacher education is composed of persons who possess professional and scholarly preparation consistent with their assignments. The majority are experienced in the appropriate areas in which they are teaching, have continuing experience in the schools, and are significantly involved in and informed about teacher preparation and issues. Continuing experience is demonstrated through such activities as supervising students in field experiences and practica, working with school personnel on curriculum development and revision, providing in-service education, and engaging in research in school settings. Members of the governing unit have experience in and are committed to the preparation of teachers to teach the culturally diverse and those who have special learning needs.

Standard: The faculty and staff of the governing unit for basic programs possess scholarly preparation and professional experience appropriate to their assignments. They maintain involvement in and are well-informed about educational issues and are committed to the preparation of teachers to provide instruction in a multicultural society, which also includes individuals with identified special learning needs.

1.2. Functions of the Governing Unit

The unit systematically develops and implements policies governing student admission, staff development, and program design, implementation, evaluation, and modification. The governing unit is responsible for establishing program requirements. Authority to accomplish these functions is ensured through published policies.

Standard: The governing unit is responsible for setting and achieving teacher education goals, establishing policies, fixing responsibility for program decision-making, identifying and utilizing resources, and facilitating continuous development and improvement of basic teacher education programs.

1.3. Relationship to Other Administrative Units

Where central administrative responsibility exists outside the purview of the teacher education unit, the role and responsibilities of that unit and its official relationship to other units and administrative offices must be clearly stated.

Standard: Policies are published that clearly delineate responsibility of the governing unit and the interdependent responsibilities of other policy-making groups and administrative offices within the institution for the overall administration and coordination of basic programs.

1.4. Official Representative

Responsibility for the general administration and coordination of programs rests with one person designated as the official representative for teacher education. The authority and responsibilities of that individual are clearly identified.

Standard: One person is officially designated to represent the teacher education unit. The authority and responsibility of this individual for the overall administration and coordination of basic teacher education programs are indicated in published policies. (NEA, 1982, pp. 48-49)

The National Education Association has attempted to spell out their policy which clearly coincides with the standards set forth by NCATE. To further describe and implement these standards, each accredited institution must ensure that their policies are in compliance. Under NCATE's "Governance of Basic Programs" no organizational structure is "prescribed," but teacher education institutions discover that their programs are expected to be "unified, organized, and coordinated in consistent fashion." This will mean that the governing body must be identified for the NCATE data bank projected by each institution which foresees the changes in accreditation from NCATE. Instead of the "initial accreditation" and various other phases which have been carried out in the past, the proposed changes by NCATE will be somewhat different. One that will directly affect the visitation procedure is the projection of one "initial" on-site visitation and then the maintenance of a "data bank" from each institution to monitor updating and sustaining existing practices. The proposed modifications will also directly affect the definition of "teacher education unit." If Principle I of the proposed changes becomes official, teacher education institutions will be accredited under the following:

Principle I: Accreditation decisions will be made for the teacher education unit.

- o the unit will be defined as the administrative structure of an institution directly responsible for policy and implementation of professional education programs; the unit is the school, college, department or other official academic structure responsible for teacher education.
 - o accreditation will encompass all programs that lead to the initial certification of teachers and other professional school personnel, and advanced programs for professional school personnel.
 - o accreditation will be granted for the total program.
 - o preconditions for governance must be met for eligibility.
 - o programs will be evaluated to assess the quality of the unit.
- (Gollnick, 1983)

Since it is expected that "governance unit" will become an

important key phrase in accreditation, we will work under the assumption, and distinguish the term for future purposes in our proposal. The four standards under governance will then deal with the unit as the governing organizational entity. Most units now include the school, division, or department of education, but with the clearly defined NCATE standards, much more is involved in teacher education. The subject area component teachers have been adjunct to this unit in most institutional studies for teacher education programs, but quality control in the unit must encompass all facets of teacher education. Institutions should set up a governing board, or "unit," which will monitor quality at every phase of their program. This governance unit will comply with the NCATE standards under special policies indicated in the goals and purposes of their organizational policies. Members of the governance unit will be identified by their quality and commitment to education.

Some of the suggested identification practices which each governance unit should insist upon should be:

1. Under Standard 1.1.: Membership of the Governing Unit, institutions for teacher education should establish guidelines for appointment of individual members within the unit. Scholarly preparation, usually the qualification that each member should be certified to teach the courses which apply directly to teacher education programs, should be a requirement for each member of the unit. When this is not possible at the institutional level, the governance unit should insist upon an appropriate faculty development program for a member who does not presently meet this recommendation.

Some of the specifics under this standard for membership should be:

- A. Each member appointed should be one who is directly involved with the governance unit in training teachers. For instance, members who teach methods courses, if their area of concentration is outside the department, division, school of education, should meet the standards set by policy. They should be able to teach the processes of performance and knowledge in their respective methods classes which relate and translate into area specialization skills, observation, diagnosis, prescription, evaluation, prognosis, and followup. They should be equipped to deal with these as they translate the content area into methods for their students.
- B. Professional involvement directly related to public school personnel, curriculum, practices, and policy should be considered when making appointments to the governance unit. Individual expectations within the unit should be considered, and quality involvement should be required.

C. Continuing research which is directly related to teacher education in the specific area should be required. Research may be in progress in the school setting or in the subject area. Professional involvement in public schools is important to those who wish to train quality teachers.

D. Experience in teaching in the specialization should be required by the governance unit. Public school teaching differs from college teaching. Faculty who normally perform this function in college should be aware of the responsibility to public school personnel and students and be experienced in their field of expertise to that end. The member should be well versed in the area of child development, adolescent psychology, interpersonal relationships, basic skills pertinent to area of specialization, and methods of teaching those skills, curriculum development, public school policy, student evaluation, and such other skills which students in the teacher education program must learn.

E. The appointment of a member should include a strong look at background, experience, and expertise in special problems and document the commitment to the educational issues which these needs encompass. "Special learning needs," multicultural education, the diversity in learning disabilities, special education needs, and public school law which becomes a part of the policies of the governance body are also part of this requirement for membership.

F. Members should know the policies and standards which have been designated by the governance unit and be firmly committed to the teacher education program and the students they teach. Their commitment to quality education is essential, and it would be wise to state these requirements in the policies which control the governance unit and its practices.

G. Members should be able to work closely with the governance unit through the seven basic areas of the teacher education program. This includes basic instruction in the components of the teacher education program in areas each member represents. NCATE designates "College-Based Faculty" as those employed who "teach or provide services to education students."

Standard 1.2., "Functions of the Governing Unit" has been specifically designed to encompass the teacher education goals, policies, decision-making principles, and the development and improvement of programs and personnel. The governance unit should prepare documents which address this Standard. Policies which deal specifically with admissions, retention, and completion of all requirements should be stated. Repeal procedures should be part of the policy-making process, and defined for all participants of the program.

Standards 1.3. and 1.4. deal with the administrative levels of the governance unit. Perhaps this is one of the most vital sections of the standards and certainly one which NEA considers important. This section of the NCATE Standards is usually the

most carefully considered by each institution. It also entails tremendous efforts from the education department, school, division. The component of the NCATE reports defines "College-Based Teacher Education" as those in the department of education and those who supply a "variety of other services related to preparing those students to become teachers." The practical aspects of the program fall under this standard because the collaboration among the sub-units is normally done at this stage of accreditation for NCATE. Policies which are designated here should be carefully outlined so that all members of the teacher education institution have a role in developing, maintaining, and evaluating procedures. The education department, division, school, must establish firm commitment and practices from all sectors of the institution and maintain this supportive assistance for quality graduates of their programs.

Standards 1.2. and 1.3. may be seen as overlapping in many institutions. Governance at these levels is a collaborative function, but the teacher education unit should be aware of college/university policies which directly affect the governance of their programs. They should, in turn, communicate their programs and policies to central administration at every opportunity, have teacher education program policies clearly defined at appropriate times for the board or commission, and supervise the implementation of the programs within the total institutional program. Programs, policies, personnel, official representative, and responsibilities of each component can be spelled out in the institution's data bank for accreditation purposes. The official representative should serve as the liaison between the administrative personnel and the governance unit for teacher education and the education department, division, school.

Standard 1.4. requires an official representative for teacher education. In most instances, the certification officer of the university/college should be designated as the official. Since the formulation of a data bank seems imminent, the chairman for the teacher education unit is the best official for this duty. The official representative must furnish the necessary information for the NCATE visitation and accreditation process. Many universities/colleges already specify that this be the official representative. An official duty would be to expedite collaboration and communication among the various components. The NCATE standard specifies the authority and responsibility of the official representative. The Chairman of the Department of Education, the Certification Officer of the Institution, and the Official Representative of the Governance Unit can clearly serve this dual purpose best.

The procedures for identifying the various roles individuals, groups, and liaison officials serve in establishing policy and preparing self-study reports is a responsibility of the joint efforts and abilities of all components. With the existing practices of procuring and filing information, the data bank can be set in motion. Almost every proposed principle

AACTE has directed to improvements in the NCATE Standards give direction to the administrative structure or governance unit. Under Principle 5: "demonstrate that the unit's membership, functions and leadership, including its relationships to other campus units meets all preconditions for governance, etc." is an example.

Requirements within the teacher education program can be effectively established when the successful practices of governing bodies function appropriately to meet standards of excellence. The adjustments which must be made in each institution are minimal if the governance unit, consisting of a qualified board or commission, with a chief representative capable of continuous communication, work together to attain excellence in their programs, efficiency in their data bank materials, and quality in their products.

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INDIVIDUALIZING SECONDARY STUDENT TEACHER LESSON PLANS - AN ACTION RESEARCH PLAN

by

Vincent Mahoney

Introduction

Preservice secondary teachers have considerable difficulty in planning, organizing, and implementing written lesson plans that are individualized and effective. This problem is significant enough to merit an action research plan to be implemented in a general secondary methods course and further developed in the student teaching field experiences. Research studies on learning style, teaching style, and brain specialization have advanced sufficiently to attempt to offer a plan of action research on the combination of this information in the teacher education program at Iowa Wesleyan College during the coming Fall semester, 1983.

Learning Style:

Experienced educators naturally develop some form of intuitive sense for matching teaching strategies to different students' learning styles. We, as experienced teachers, know that students vary tremendously in the ways they learn. Also we know from our experiences that different students take different lengths of time to achieve the same level of learning.

In actual practice we usually do not individualize much of our instruction. It is usually delivered as group instruction. Most previous efforts to individualize instruction in the past at the secondary level have failed (Keefe, 1979). Keefe (1979, pp. 1-18) claims that previous efforts have been unsuccessful because these efforts were based on a misunderstanding of how students learn.

Student learning styles research may help establish a correct, lasting basis for true individualization of instruction. Keefe (1979, pp. 1-18) defines student learning styles as "characteristic cognitive, affective, and physiological behaviors that serve as relatively stable indicators of how learners perceive, interact with, and respond to learning environment."

Table I in this article from The Emerging Science of Individualized Instruction (Lindelow, 1983, p. 6) summarizes the major elements of student learning style as constructed from the research of James W. Keefe (1979, 140 pp.). At the onset it

should be noted that models on learning style fields are only in a formative stage and subject to correction and much verification yet. As can be noted on the table, Keefe's classification of learning style has three broad divisions: cognitive style, affective style, and physiological style. The chart contains subcategories under each of these learning styles.



TABLE I: STUDENT LEARNING STYLE *

COGNITIVE STYLES

Reception styles
 Perceptual Modality
 preferences
 Field independence vs.
 dependence
 Scanning
 Constricted vs. flexible
 control
 Tolerance for incongruous
 or unrealistic experiences

Strong vs. weak automatization
 Conceptual vs. perceptual-
 motor dominance

Concept formation and
 Retention Styles

Conceptual tempo
 Conceptualizing Styles
 Breadth of categorizing
 Cognitive complexity
 vs. simplicity
 Leveling vs. sharpening

AFFECTIVE STYLES

Attention Styles

Conceptual level
 Curiosity
 Persistence or perseverance
 Level of anxiety
 Frustration tolerance

Expectancy and Incentive
 Styles

Locus of control
 Achievement motivation
 Self-actualization
 Imitation
 Risk taking vs.
 cautiousness
 Competition vs.
 cooperation
 Level of aspiration
 Reaction to rein-
 forcement
 Social motivation
 Personal interests

PHYSIOLOGICAL STYLES

Masculine-feminine behavior
 Health-related behavior
 Time rhythms
 Need for mobility
 Environmental Elements

* From Keefe, 1979

Learning styles attempt to explain how information is being processed by the student; to identify the learner's typical mode of arousing, directing, and sustaining behavior (motivation); and to identify important biologically-based modes of response. Other researchers besides Keefe classify learning style by other organizational elements. Rita Dunn, (1981, pp. 372-375), for example, emphasizes "input/output" factors of style such as environment surrounding a learner, the learner's perceptual preference for receiving information and the learner's preferred means of expression. Consult Table II for the subelements under each of Dunn's factors.

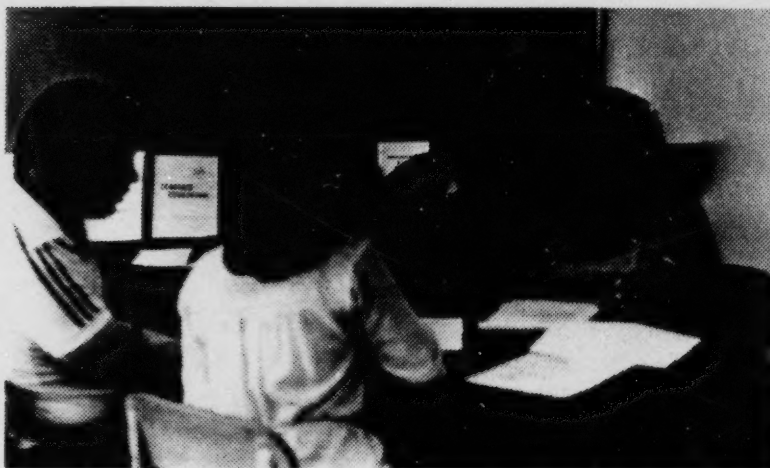


TABLE II: STUDENT LEARNING STYLE *

STIMULI AND ELEMENTSENVIRONMENTAL SURROUNDINGS

Sound - Absolute silence vs Noise
 Light - Bright vs Soft
 Temperature Range - Warm vs Cool
 Informal vs Formal Design (seating)

EMOTIONAL

Motivation
 Persistence
 Responsibility
 Structure vs Options

SOCIOLOGICAL

Alone
 Small Groups
 Peer - Oriented
 Teacher - Oriented

PHYSICAL

Tactual
 Kinesthetic
 Visual
 Time of Day
 Nutritional Intake Demands

PSYCHOLOGICAL

Sequential Order
 Analytic
 Global

* From Dunn, 1981

Other researchers can be cited who organize learning style elements in different fashions. Canfield and Lafferty discuss conditions, content, modes, and expectations while Gregoric emphasizes distinctive behaviors and dualities (Dunn, DeBello, Brennan, Krinsky, and Murrain, 1981, pp. 372-375). Hunt prefers conceptual levels while Kolb chooses hereditary equipment, past experience, and environment (Dunn et al, 1981, pp. 372-375).

Rita Dunn has provided a valuable analysis and comparison of the various learning style models for both similarities and differences. She cites general similarities as elements of structure, motivation, sociological needs, perceptual modes, and thought processing (Dunn et al, 1981, p. 372). The differences in various learning style modes relate to these factors: goal setting; environmental variables emphasis; energy levels of intake; mobility or passivity; global/analytical thinking; hemispheric-brain dominance; sequential or random thinking; abstract vs concrete form of learning; cultural variables; and elaborative vs repetitive processing (Dunn, et al, 1981, pp. 372-373). Numerous research instruments used to identify learning style exist. Dunn (1981, pp. 374-375) provides an analytical chart on ten of these instruments, discussing the definition of learning style used in the instrument, details on the instrument composition, administration time, scoring, and application implementation for the particular instrument. This chart should be very helpful to the action researcher wishing to get started on an introduction to measurement of learning style. Generally most of the instruments are self-report inventory types.

Anthony Gregoric (1979, pp. 234-236) gives some good cautionary advice to teacher educators or practitioners to keep in mind when using learning style instruments:

1. Instruments, by their very nature, are exclusive.
2. Some students lie on any type of self-reporting instrument, willingly or unwillingly. Others read elements into questions and statements.
3. Some students have used artificial means of adapting for so long that they report these as "preferred means of learning."
4. An educator's attitude (either positive or negative) toward a particular student or toward the concept of diagnosis/prescription itself can drastically influence both instrument interpretation and consequent prescription.

Teaching Styles

Teaching is a highly ideosyncratic act. The uniqueness of each human being guarantees variations of innumerable aspects.

Thus some educators insist that there are no broad categories of teaching styles. Instruments that purport to measure teaching styles obviously make assumptions contrary to the above. Researchers through direct observation attempt to categorize teaching into various broad approaches to instruction and upon interrelationships with the learner.

A large variety of modes exist which attempt to describe general teaching styles. The most frequent models mention methods of presentation of information such as lecture, group discussion, independent projects, and presentations. The author will not attempt to summarize numerous models on teaching styles but rather indicate inventory instruments that may appear suitable for this action research project. Gregoric and Ward's teaching style inventory, (1979, p. 4), specifies four fields. They are pair-combinations of the following: CE-concrete experiences, RO-reflective observation, and AE-active experimentation. These are teacher modes of presentation that demand particular student responses. Other appropriate inventories or instruments on teaching style include The Teaching Style Z-Sort (Heikkinen, 1978), and Teaching Styles Inventory (Canfield and Canfield, 1975).

The important concept about teaching styles as related to this action research project is that every environment places demands upon individual's for adaptation. (Gregoric, 1979, pp. 234-235). Thus when a teacher uses a particular teaching style the style selected places adaptation demands upon the minds of the learners. Aspects of this broad idea should be worth consideration and investigation as part of this study.

Brain Research

First in reviewing current brain research and attempting to understand implications the research may have for individualization, learning styles, and teaching styles, it is best to keep in mind the cautionary notes of Edward Fagan. Fagan (1979, pp. 407-410) states that we should NOT assume that teachers' materials and lesson plans are primarily left-hemisphere oriented, that teachers are unaware of individualized instruction with its consequent provisions for a variety of learning styles, and that there is some sort of "brain-incompatibility" with our present classroom instruction. All such generalities are unsupported by hard research data when methods and instructional materials of effective teachers are examined. These teachers have instinctively used wholistic methods long before the study of brain hemispheres confirmed the efficacy of such methods (Fagan, 1979, p. 409). In brief as we examine brain research, we are not looking for any ONE solution to individualization or flexible lesson planning. There is NO ONE solution.

Wittrock (1981, pp. 12-15) notes that "educational problems involve levels, contexts, and multivariate complexities not encompassed in neurological research." We must await the full integration of the fields of neuroscience, behavioral science, and educational research in the future.

What then can we use from the recent brain research in our instructional methods as teachers? Recent brain research indicates that the cerebrum or neocortex consists of two hemispheres. The various functions of the cerebrum may be lateralized in one or the other hemisphere. In the common lateralization patterns suggested, the speech, language, and rational linear thought are localized in the left hemisphere and artistic ability, artistic appreciation, form recognition, color perception, spatial abilities, and other non-verbal types of thought are located in the right hemisphere (Lindelow, 1983, p. 17).

Hardyck and Haapanen (1979, pp. 219-229) point out that the above lateralization is based on studies of brains that have been epileptic. Thus they caution us about generalizing the idea to normal subjects and advise "we should ask for more evidence that these differences really exist outside a narrow experimental context unrepresentative of either the educational process or the course of daily life." (Hardyck and Haapanen, 1979, pp. 219-229)

Research on perception and cognitive psychology advances the concept of the brain as a "model builder." The brain appears to make sense out of reality by using models on reality (Wittrock, 1981, pp. 12-15). He says that students appear to learn and remember only "what they actively construct mentally during teaching and studying." (Wittrock, 1981, pp. 12-13) Thus what the teacher presents is not necessarily what students reconstruct and thus learn because this mental model building can be influenced by many factors, both internal and external. Kami (1981, pp. 12-17) reinforces this notion when she states, "But if we believe that children learn by constructing knowledge and values from within, through interaction with the environment, our notion of teaching becomes instead one of fostering whatever helps the constructive process."

Finally one other area of brain research appears pertinent to this proposed action research plan. The brain grows from two pounds weight to three pounds between the ages of two and sixteen years (Sylvester, 1981, p. 7). But this brain growth is not slow or continuous; instead it occurs during about six month spurts at these points 2-4 years, 6-8, 10-12+, and 14-16+ years with practically no growth in between. (Sylvester, 1981, p. 7). This brain growth interestingly corresponds to the stages of thinking development proposed by Jean Piaget. This research carries a significant message about lesson planning and implementation for teachers. It should be incorporated in the plan described below.

The Proposed Plan

The reviewed research of the above sections on learning style, teaching style, and brain function will be presented to preservice student teachers in lecture, discussion, short exercises, and assignments in Education 395-General Secondary Methods. Students will complete one or two learning style inventories themselves (probably Kolb and Gregoric's instruments). Discussion of revealed insights about oneself will be shared in small and large group format. Students will also complete one or two teaching style inventories as well. These instruments will be re-administered during the two Education 492-493 practicums and perhaps in field experiences courses as well.

During Education 395 the students will be asked to present two mini-teaching lessons to sections of the class formulating their lessons on the above research information, learning style self-information, and teaching style data. Emphasis will be upon constructing flexible lessons with a multitude of strategies incorporated in them and for which specific learning styles intended are identified as well. Single mode lesson approaches will be discouraged.

The author will use a short class reaction feedback form for each presentation. This will be shared with the individual student privately. During Education 492-493 field experiences the author will be supervising and counseling the same students. The observational data on the types of lessons constructed and presented will be gathered. The author will have other student teachers to observe who have not been subjected to the total procedures described above. Thus some comparisons on lesson plan individualization and flexibility can be drawn between the two groups. Both quantitative and qualitative data can be gathered on the two groups. The action research procedures described generally here will be repeated for a second year at least and corrections made in procedures or instrument-use or data gathering methods as possible difficulties present themselves in the project.

Conclusion

It is hoped that the action research project will contribute to improved quality of lesson planning, implementation, and greater individualization of secondary teaching. Many interesting implications for the teacher education program at Iowa Wesleyan may be forthcoming from the project.

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ALTERNATE DESIGNS FOR CAPTURING AND HOLDING STUDENT
INTEREST IN A REQUIRED COURSE FOR SECONDARY
SCHOOL BIOLOGY TEACHING MAJORS

by

Thomas R. Mertens

In an editorial in Science, David S. Saxon, President of the University of California at Berkeley, argued persuasively that science is "...an indispensable part of the liberal arts curriculum." While not wanting to make scientists of all students, Saxon argued that educated persons living in a scientific and technological world must understand the nature of science, its strengths and limitations. In addition, he stated his belief that educated citizens must have a conceptual understanding of the laws of probability and chance, and they must come to recognize that science is "...a highly unified and consistent view of the world (Saxon, 1982, p. 845)."

Experience suggests that achieving these goals is not easy: students often have preconceived and negative views of science, science courses, and scientists. Science is often perceived as a collection of isolated facts to be memorized and subsequently regurgitated on tests. The fact that science has significance in their own personal lives, that it both solves and creates problems for individuals and for society, and that it can be a powerful tool in the service of mankind, is only poorly perceived by most students. If students are to understand science, they must first be motivated to study science. They are most likely to value science if they see that it has personal meaning for them. The purpose of this paper is to suggest alternate designs for capturing and holding student interest in a required course for secondary school biology teaching majors.

Genetics in the Curriculum

Genetics has long been recognized as a science, the principles of which provide a strong integrative force to the discipline of biology. Most biology majors, including most biology teaching majors, are required to take a genetics course at some point in their undergraduate preparation. Recent years have seen an increasing emphasis being placed upon the need for human genetics in the preparation of high school biology teachers (BSCS, 1978, pp. 19-29; Mertens, 1983, pp. 628-631).

Some consensus seems to exist among biology teacher educators that both college and high school students can more readily identify with human genetics than with the traditional approach to genetics which involves studying fruit flies, corn, bacteria,

and molds (Mertens, 1983, p. 629). To convince students that the science of human genetics is of significance in their own lives, and generally in contemporary society is a comparatively easy task. The relevance of human genetics can become apparent when one examines some of the hard facts concerning birth defects, most of which have a genetic or chromosomal basis. In the 1983 edition of his catalog of single gene traits in humans, Victor A. McKusick of Johns Hopkins University listed over 3,000 genetic conditions, most of which are associated with birth defects and disease. Any reputable human or medical genetics book can be used to verify statistics on the incidence of birth defects, but a frequency of five percent is not out of line. Most authorities would also agree that approximately one in every 200 babies born may be expected to have some type of chromosome aberration such as that causing Down syndrome. Data such as these are readily obtained and are meaningful to most young people who are only too well aware of birth defects. Most can think of an individual or a family so burdened -- a child with Down syndrome or one born with cleft palate, club foot, spina bifida, dwarfism, sickle cell anemia or PKU. Young people of secondary school and college age can be expected to be concerned about birth defects because in a few short years they will be producing children who will be at risk for these defects.

Unfortunately, when human genetics is taught at the college level, it is likely to be approached historically or in a discipline-oriented fashion. Those who write human genetics books and teach human genetics courses think in terms of the logic and historical development of the discipline. Perhaps they should be thinking in terms of problems that will readily be recognized by students as being significant to human well-being. Courses and books should be structured in a way that students will find meaningful.

Human genetics, for example, could easily be approached from the point of view of birth defects, their incidence, etiology, prevention, treatment, and possible cure. In examining birth defects in this fashion, students could be led to see why most of the significant concepts and principles of human genetics must be mastered if their questions about birth defects are to be explored. Furthermore, in orienting themselves to a study of birth defects, students could employ many resources other than traditional textbook, journal articles, and instructor lectures. Resources exist in the community: a local pediatrician or obstetrician, March of Dimes, Planned Parenthood, the parents of a child with Down syndrome, a man or woman whose spouse has Huntington's disease. A little exploration will uncover these and other resources that will further convince students of the significance of birth defects--and human genetics--to their lives.

Thus, human genetics courses for secondary school biology teaching majors might well be restructured to begin with the problem of birth defects and then examine those concepts and principles of human genetics that are needed to understand birth defects. A tentative outline for a ten week course in human genetics based on this premise is summarized in the Appendix, pp. 5-8.

An Alternate Approach

Any study of human genetics is likely to raise significant value, moral, and ethical questions. In fact, if the instructor is prepared to do so, exploring bioethical questions growing out of developments in human and medical genetics has been shown to be an effective way in which to capture and hold the interest of students who do not have a strong interest in science per se (Mertens and Hendrix, 1983, p. 19). Among the many questions that could be integrated into a human genetics course are the following: "Ought we abort a genetically defective child?" "Ought we develop the recombinant DNA technology that will permit us to correct human genetic defects?" "Ought we attempt to control our own evolution?" "Should a newborn with serious birth defects, such as the complications associated with Down syndrom, be allowed to die?"

On the other hand, secondary school teachers wishing to use this approach in their own teaching may well encounter difficulties. Traditionally, secondary school teachers of biology have been taught to deal with the facts, concepts, and principles of biology. Usually, they also have been schooled in the methods biologists use to generate new knowledge. Most biology teachers, however, do not feel competent to deal with the value/moral/ethical issues raised by questions such as those cited above (Mertens and Hendrix, 1982, p. 148). Most teacher educators would, no doubt, agree that it is not appropriate for public school teachers to impose their own values on students. Instructional methods are needed to enable students to clarify their values and to explore the consequences of alternate uses of biological knowledge. Mertens and Hendrix (1982, p. 150) cited literature that teachers wishing to deal with controversial, value-laden issues would find useful. Hendrix has developed a model for bioethical decision making that has been extensively tested with both college and secondary school teachers of biology (Mertens and Hendrix, 1982, p. 149). However, experience suggests that most biology teachers are not prepared adequately to deal with values issues.

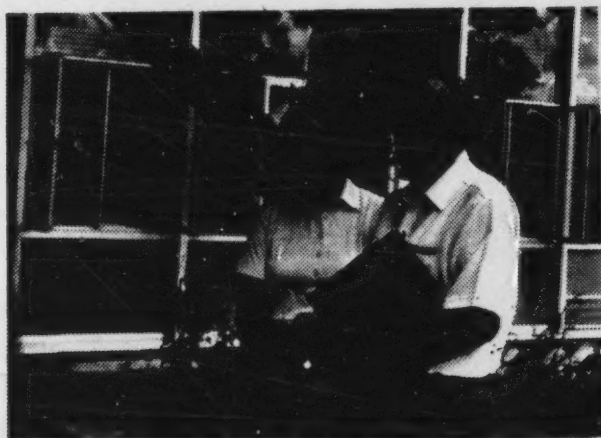
Mertens (1983, p. 631) has noted that the preservice preparation of all biology teachers ought to include an introduction to the work of Jean Piaget, Lawrence Kohlberg and others whose research sheds light on how students learn, and on how values affect what they learn. Teachers must have some grasp of the moral and cognitive development of young people if they are to be successful in dealing with the value/moral/ethical problems growing out of advances in various biological specialities.

Teacher education faculty should be urged to develop curricula that provide preservice teachers with the experiences needed to prepare them for dealing with value/moral/ethical issues in a meaningful fashion. The humanistic and behavioral studies segment of the teacher education program supplemented with substantial background in teaching and learning theory (NCATE, 1982, pp. 17-18) ought to be the curricular components through which this goal is accomplished. If the goal is not being achieved, perhaps curricular revisions are in order.

Traditionally, teachers are prepared so that they can teach their students to solve problems in science, mathematics, and other disciplines. Is it not at least as significant that teachers know how to help their students cope with significant ethical problems growing out of advances in science?

Summary and Conclusion

Two alternative approaches to teaching human genetics content are suggested: (1) Instruction could begin with an investigation of some of the better known birth defects having a chromosomal or genetic basis. To understand these defects, the basic concepts and principles of genetics must be explored. (2) An alternate approach could employ bioethical issues growing out of advances in genetics as the basis for attracting and holding student attention. If bioethical issues are to be addressed in a significant fashion, however, the instructor will need to have competencies in dealing with values and ethics in such a manner that the instructor's values are not imposed on students. If this second alternative is to be widely employed by secondary school teachers, effective teacher education curricula must be designed to prepare teachers who have some grasp of how students learn and how values affect what they learn.



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Appendix: Tentative Course Outline

- Week 1: Learning about Birth Defects: What are they: How big a problem are they for us? What causes them?
- a. Present at birth or appear in first year of life; appear later in life, but etiology present at birth; debilitating or cause death; require major medical intervention, including surgery.
 - b. Frequencies: General and specific -- 1/200 babies born has a chromosomal defect; 5/100 babies born has a genetic birth defect; 1/500 babies in U.S.A. is anencephalic or has spina bifida; 1/400-1/500 black babies born has sickle cell anemia, etc., etc.
 - c. Causes: chromosomal aberrations, single gene defects (autosomal dominant, autosomal recessive, X-linked), polygenic and multifactorial.

Answers to the three questions listed above can be sought in textbooks or reference works and in journal articles, but to personalize learning, students should be encouraged to use additional resources; local physicians (especially pediatricians), March of Dimes, Planned Parenthood, affected individuals and/or their families. This week's activities are critical for setting the stage for the entire course. What the student learns this week provides motivation and impetus for studying the concepts and principles of human genetics.

- Week 2: Birth Defects: Down Syndrome and other Chromosomal Aberrations -- how are they produced?
- a. The mechanics of chromosome behavior -
 - (1) mitosis and the development of the fetus from a fertilized egg.
 - (2) meiosis and gametogenesis -- chromosome behavior in the production of sperms and eggs.
 - (3) chromosome misbehavior (nondisjunction) in the production of chromosomally defective fetuses.
 - b. Other chromosomal defects -- deficiencies, translocations, etc.

Week 3.

Birth Defects: A catalogue of syndromes produced by aberrant chromosome constitutions.

- a. Trisomies -- fetuses with 47 rather than the "normal" 46 chromosomes: Down, Klinefelter, Patau, Edwards, XYY, etc.; symptoms, causes, consequences.
- b. Monosomies -- fetuses with 45 rather than 46 chromosomes: Turner syndrome.
- c. Structural Chromosome Aberrations: Cat cry syndrome and others produced by defects in the structure of chromosomes.
- d. Prenatal detection of chromosomally abnormal fetuses. Spontaneous abortion as a consequence of chromosome defects. Induced abortion as a means of preventing the birth of a chromosomally defective fetus. Moral and ethical issues.

Week 4.

Birth Defects: Sickle Cell Anemia -- understanding the molecular basis of a birth defect.

For students to understand what causes the problems and symptoms associated with sickle cell anemia, they must learn about hemoglobin and its structure, and they will need to explore the differences between normal and sickle hemoglobin. Such exploration will lead to examination of how DNA (the gene) controls hemoglobin structure and how changes (mutations) in DNA can produce defective (mutant) hemoglobin. The Watson-Crick model of DNA structure and the "central dogma of molecular genetics" (that DNA controls RNA which dictates protein, in this case, hemoglobin structure) will be explored.

Week 5.

Birth Defects: Sickle cell anemia, phenylketonuria, cystic fibrosis, Tay-Sachs disease, achondroplasia, and Huntington's disease -- understanding how birth defects can be transmitted by parents to offspring.

- a. Mendel's laws of heredity
- b. Probability principles underlying gene transmission
- c. Human pedigrees and their analysis
- d. Genetic counseling
- e. Moral and ethical issues

Week 6.

Birth Defects: Not all birth defects are inherited according to the simple patterns characterized by Mendelian laws: some, for example, seem to be related to sex: common forms of red-green colorblindness, hemophilia, Duchenne muscular dystrophy (all examples of X-linked inheritance); premature pattern baldness and Heberden's nodes, a bone structure defect producing arthritis (both sex influenced inheritance).

- a. Sex chromosomes and gene transmission
 - (1) X-linked genes (200-300 known cases)
 - (2) Y-linked genes
- b. Sex influenced and sex limited traits
- c. Other aspects of sex and gene transmission and expression

Week 7.

Birth Defects: Not all birth defects are inherited according to the simple patterns characterized by Mendelian laws: congenital deafness, albinism, blood type incompatibilities (e.g., Rh-incompatibility).

- a. Examine epistasis or gene interaction in which two genes interact to product one effect -- congenital deafness, albinism.
- b. Examine multiple alleles and the control of blood types -- ABO, Rh, etc. focusing on Hemolytic Disease of the Newborn (Rh incompatibility) -- its cause, prevention and treatment.
- c. Inheritance of birth defects that may be inherited together because they are caused by genes linked on the same chromosome.

Week 8.

Birth Defects regulated by many genes and markedly affected by environment: Neural tube defects (NTDs) -- spina bifida and anencephaly, cleft lip/palate, club foot.

- a. Models of polygenic inheritance -- human stature and skin color in black/white matings.
- b. The role of the environment; complications created for analysis and prediction of defective newborns.

- c. Prenatal detection of NTDs -- social, legal, moral and ethical issues.

Week 9.

Birth Defects, genetic counseling and pedigree analysis: A synthesis of weeks 5, 6, 7 and 8.

- a. Differentiating between the major kinds of gene-produced birth defects -- analysis of human pedigrees: distinguishing between autosomal dominant, autosomal recessive, X-linked, Y-linked, sex influenced, sex limited, and polygenic modes of inheritance.
- b. The role of the genetic counselor
- c. Moral and ethical issues

Week 10.

Birth Defects: Racial, ethnic, and population differences. An examination of principles of population genetics. Examples of racial/ethnic/population differences; Sickle cell anemia is much more common in blacks than in whites or orientals; Tay-Sachs disease occurs in 1 in 3600 newborns of Eastern European Jewish extraction, but only 1 in 300,000 in the rest of the population. Cystic fibrosis and phenylketonuria are characteristically "white" genetic diseases; Neural tube defects are especially common among the Scotch and Irish.

- a. The Hardy-Weinberg law -- the basic principle of population genetics.
- b. Factors that affect gene frequencies in populations -- mutation, selection, genetic drift.
- c. The significance of population differences -- for human well being, for human evolution, for genetic counseling and medical practice.

STRUCTURE AND FUNCTIONS OF A TEACHER EDUCATION UNIT

by

John G. McLevie

Purpose

To develop guidelines for action related to planning the structure and functions of a new teacher education unit. The unit will combine former elementary and secondary education departments and will comprise about 60 faculty members. Planning activities are scheduled for Fall, 1983 with implementation in Spring, 1984.

Considerations

1. The possible internal structure of the unit to facilitate credential and degree programs, to provide inservice programs to local K through 12 school districts and to facilitate faculty and disciplinary exchanges. Alternative models have been drafted;
2. Administrative and secretarial support provisions for the unit and for its internal sub-units;
3. The faculty deliberation process which would best lead to definitions of:
 - (i) a unit mission statement,
 - (ii) a model for internal structure and management,
 - (iii) necessary curricular and programmatic developments to achieve the mission objectives,
 - (iv) faculty development programs consequent upon the requirements of the mission statement and curricular and programmatic changes; and
4. The inter-connecting liaisons necessary between the teacher education unit and other separate departments within the College of Education.

Key Global Problems of the Teacher Education Unit

1. Lack of academic credibility among "academic" units in other colleges on campus and with the Graduate Dean. The unit lacks credibility and this tends to extend to individual teacher education faculty.
2. Lack of credibility on school sites and in district offices which is based upon the assumption that professors could not teach in a school classroom and

that they are too engrossed in the 'ivory tower' world of academia.

3. The County Department of Education is providing much of the in-service for district teachers. State funding of the TEC Centers in California tends to emphasize this role of the County. Other universities are also active in the field including a number of private institutions which are less restricted in their provisions and scheduling owing to more flexible administrative procedures and sometimes academic standards. The Teacher Association groups are tending to demand a controlling share in in-service program development.
4. Teaching is an art and a science. Some faculty have not kept current with the science of their subject and new graduates can leave the program ignorant of the latest research findings, theories or classroom techniques.
5. Some faculty are unfamiliar with local school practices and fail to prepare student teachers well for their practical assignments.
6. Some faculty have not kept aware of present and future trends in education. Such trends may be evolutionary, the result of increased social attention, or the result of the development of new technologies.

Workshop Activities Which Contributed To The Preparation Of This Proposal

1. The Faculty Development presentation by Dr. David Whorton gave valuable insights, conceptual frameworks and practical suggestions related to process concerns.
2. Work with Group 3 which resulted in the writing of a group paper addressing the needs for faculty development programs in schools/colleges/departments of education. Reading, discussion and writing activities were used.
3. Informal sharing and group discussions with other workshoppers provided fresh ideas and stimulation.
4. Extensive reading included surveys of the literature for the Group 3 paper and individual reading.
5. Two private luncheon meetings were arranged to gain experienced input on the above "Considerations". The first discussion was with Assistant Dean Jim Davis of the College of Education, Northern Arizona State University and Dr. Phillip Fitch, Director of Teacher Education at Point Loma College, San Diego, and a seven-year member of the former Commission for Teacher Preparation and Licensing of the State of California (now the Commission on Teacher Credentialing). The second discussion was with Dr. David Whorton, Professor

of Educational Administration and Administrative
Intern to the Office of the President, Northern
Arizona University.



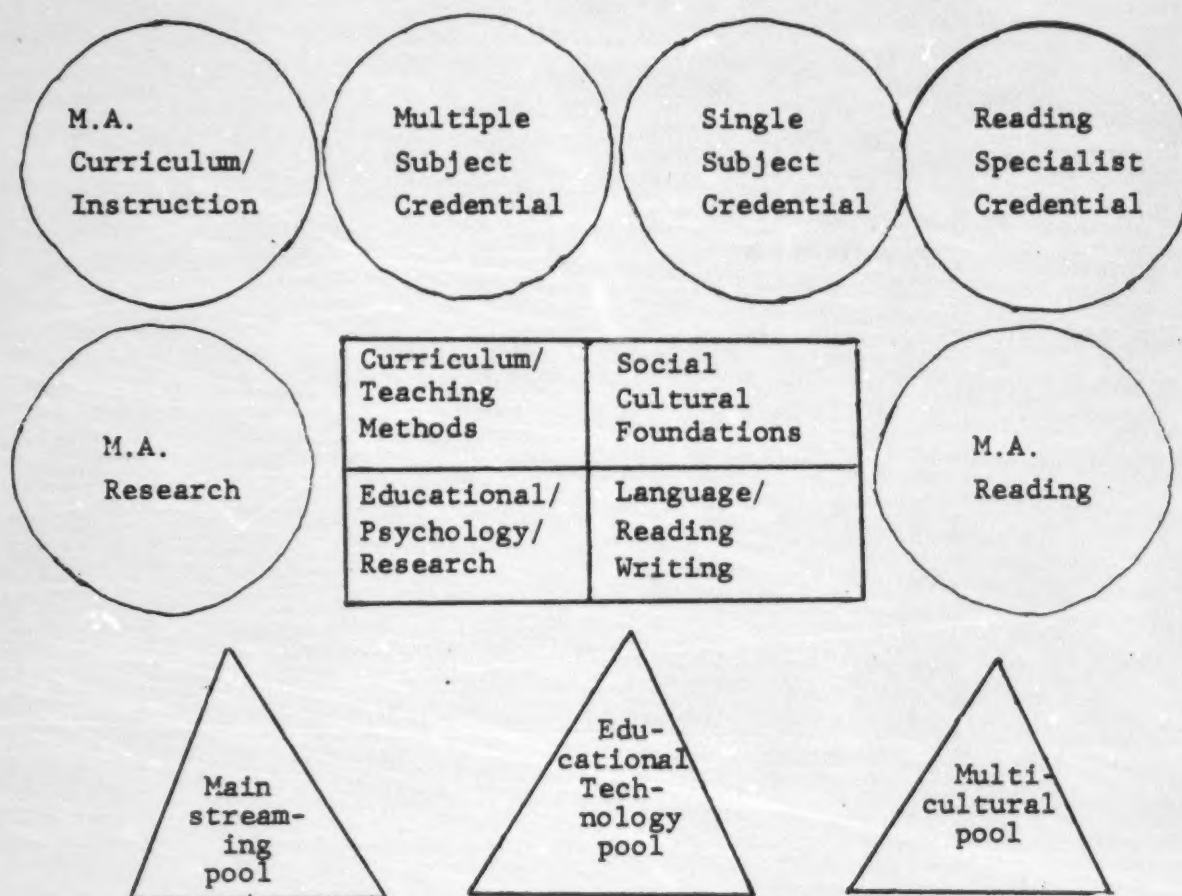
TEACHER EDUCATION - OBJECTIVES FOR FALL 1983
AND TO BE CONTINUED INTO SPRING 1984 AS NECESSARY

- 1.0 Determine the title and status of the Teacher Education Unit, including its sub-group, programmatic or discipline elements.
ACTION. Faculty workshop 9 a.m. to 3 p.m. on August 25.
Continue discussion as needed.
Special Resources: money for hiring off-campus conference room; money for lunch (self-serve salads?) for 65 persons.
- 2.0 Define the relationship of the Teacher Education Unit to other units within the College of Education.
ACTION. Discussion to include the Dean, the Dean's Council and the Policy Council.
- 3.0 Define membership of the Teacher Education Unit by accepting new applicants.
ACTION. Discussion to include the Dean.
- 4.0 List the teaching skills and content knowledge that each graduate from the Multiple Subject and Single Subject Credentials should demonstrate to a defined minimal extent.
ACTION. Small group discussions leading to written recommendations submitted to all Teacher Education Faculty.
- 5.0 Redefine curricula to incorporate the skills and knowledge listed in 3 above.
ACTION. Small group discussions with curricula approved by the Teacher Education Unit and submitted to university curriculum procedures as needed.
- 6.0 Redefine supervision models appropriate to Student Teaching Programs.
ACTION. Workshop from 9 to 11:30 a.m. on August 26.
Presenter - Dr. Jackie Chaparro, San Diego County.
Special Resources - Visiting lecture fee.
- 7.0 Develop plans and initiate pilot activities in preparation for the establishment of School-site Lab School Programs. Prospective sites have been offered by:
 - (i) Cajon Valley School District. Flying Hills School as center.
 - (ii) S.D. City Schools - Wilson Middle School as center with related programs at Hoover High School, Adams and Euclid Elementary Schools.
 - (iii) South Bay area - Sweetwater High School as center associated with National School District elementary schools.
 - (iv) North County - San Pasqual H.S. as center.ACTION. Small group planning sessions.

- 8.0 Develop plans and support resources for Action - Research activities by faculty members.
ACTION. Small group planning sessions.
- 9.0 Complete a needs assessment to define faculty hiring needs in Teacher Education.
ACTION. Unit coordinator in collaboration with unit faculty discussions and approval.
- 10.0 Define Coordinator positions needed within the unit.
ACTION. Dean, unit coordinator and results of unit faculty discussions and approval.
- 11.0 Define secretarial roles, positions and relationships.
ACTION. Unit coordinator, sub-group coordinators, secretaries and Dean.
- 12.0 Determine office space allocations for the unit.
ACTION. Unit coordinator and Dean.
- 13.0 Plan professional growth activities for the unit and/or as part of a College of Education.
ACTION. Small group discussions to determine.
- 14.0 Define the unit's in-service, graduate and student research activities.
ACTION. Small group discussions.
- 15.0 Delineate the linkages, collaboration and active involvement in in-service, graduate (including Doctoral Program) and research activities (student and faculty) between the Teacher Education Unit and other elements involved in such activities within the College of Education.
ACTION. Small group discussions.

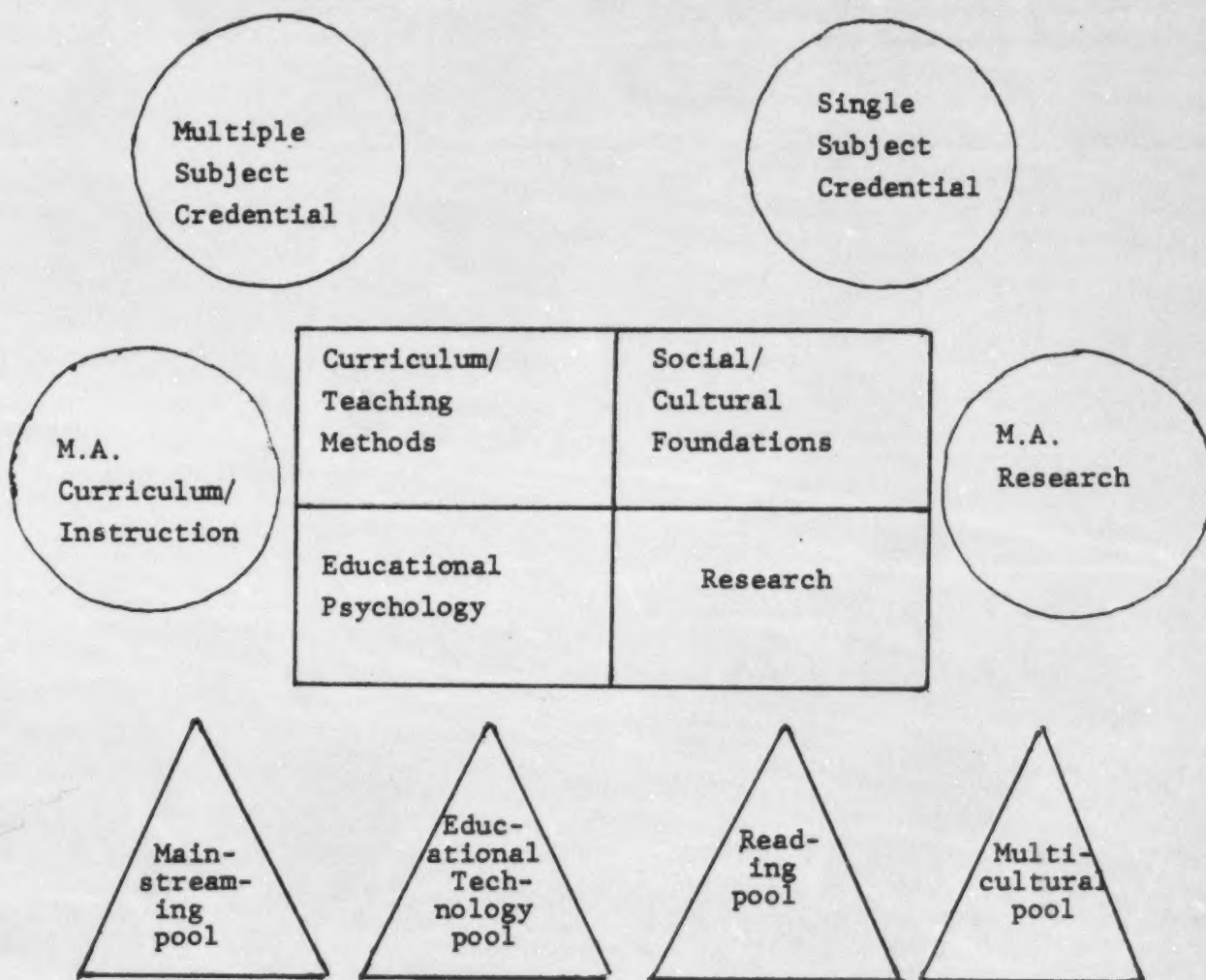
III. Organization

An organization to deliver programs for students and to support faculty interaction is suggested below. The structure aims to facilitate relationships between program segments. Programs are shown as circles and each is able to draw on all or any of the faculty/discipline areas for teaching courses. The triangles indicate course offerings available from faculty outside of the Teacher Education Department.



KEY: □ Faculty/discipline areas
 ○ Programs
 △ Contributing areas from outside the department

Possibility 1. This structure aims to facilitate relationships between program segments. Programs are shown as circles and each drawn on the faculty/discipline areas for teaching courses. The triangles indicate course offerings available from faculty outside the Teacher Education Department. The department chairperson is responsible for maintaining the programs shown and for providing initiatives to foster the faculty discipline groups in their professional interchanges and growth.



KEY: □ Faculty/discipline areas
 ○ Programs
 ▲ Contributing areas from outside the department

Possibility 2. The structure provides for an experimental K through 12 program to be developed within the Department of Teacher Education. Department Faculty are available to work with the experimental program or the existing multiple subject and single subject credentials. The faculty pools will also provide instructors for the M.A. programs.

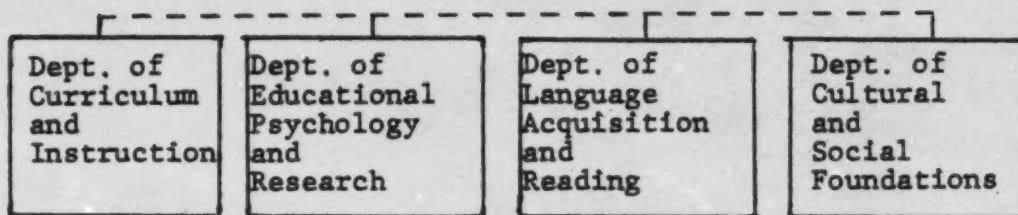
Multiple Subject Credential	Undergraduate Program in Education K through 12 Experimental Program M.A. in Teaching	Single Subject Credential M.A. in Secondary Education
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FACULTY

Teacher Education			
Curriculum/ Teaching Methods	Social/ Cultural Foundations	Research	Educational Psychology

	OTHER FACULTY AVAILABLE		
Mainstreaming Pool	Educational Technology Pool	Reading Pool	Multi-cultural Pool

SCHOOL (DIVISION) OF TEACHER EDUCATION



Programs

Credential: Multiple Subjects
Single Subject
Reading Specialist
K through 12 innovative programs

Graduate: M.A. in Curriculum & Instruction - Elementary
M.A. in Curriculum & Instruction - Secondary
M.A. in Curriculum & Instruction - K through 12
M.A. in Research
M.A. in Reading

Administration - Coordinator Time

Dept. of Curriculum and Instruction	.40
Dept. of Educational Psychology & Research	.50
Dept. of Social and Cultural Foundations	.40
Dept. of Language Acquisition and Reading	.60
Multiple Subjects Credential	.60
Single Subjects Credential	.60
Division Chair or Administrator	1.00
Total	4.20 positions for 60 faculty

Rationale

Coordinators - Responsibilities for discipline area curricula, faculty assignments, providing support for professional growth activities, student progress in discipline area.

Research - Additional responsibility to form faculty research teams and offer support for classroom-related research projects and fund-seeking.

Language Acquisition and Reading - Additional responsibility to develop program toward forming a Center and to support research and fund-seeking.

Division (school) Chair/Administrator - Overall responsibility for schedule decisions, faculty professional growth, student progress, office management, coordination of programs, response to the Dean, public relations with schools, etc., new program development.

Secretarial

Aide -	1 Budget, schedule coordination, etc.
Secretaries -	1 Director's Office 1 Reading + Research 1 Multiple Subjects Credential Program & Social/Cultural Foundations 1 Single Subject Credential Program & Curriculum & Instruction
Total	5 for 60 faculty

Student Assistant Funding - \$3000. This is an essential item for processing faculty typing and duplicating.

Footnote:

It would greatly assist the merger if Director of Student Teaching time could be allocated so that the Coordinator of each block or Center for student teaching could be allocated one unit. This might increase the total by .60 or 1.00 positions.

PARTNERSHIP SOUGHT - TEACHER EDUCATION and BUSINESS

QUALITY in EDUCATION depends on TEACHERS

An excellent opportunity is offered to be a key partner in redesigning California's largest Teacher Education Program. A collaborative planning and sponsorship partnership is proposed.

Newspapers have recently detailed San Diego State University's efforts to revitalize its College of Education.

More than 60 professors stand willing to address today's needs.

SPONSORSHIP and COLLABORATION is needed to provide:

- Staff development seminars to address key changes
- Workshops to update professors and bank officers in the latest technologies and research findings for professional training and retraining.
- Visiting consultants expert in new training techniques
- Time and planning opportunities to rewrite the training curricula for bank personnel and for teachers

300 students will start their Teacher Education Program at SDSU in Fall, 1983. No one is even starting to discuss funding for this vital new beginning.

Will the public and the legislature leave teachers to the end of the line in their attempts to support new educational strategies?

Can business afford to stand aside and watch this ignoring of Teacher Education needs?

Show that your business understands the importance of good training programs for teachers. Wouldn't the newspaper headings suggested on the next page be good for business and for teacher education?

What about the students in the classroom to be taught by these teachers over the next 30 years?

RESOURCES NEEDED FOR STAFF DEVELOPMENT PROGRAM
SCHOOL OF TEACHER EDUCATION, SDSU

1. Workshops for professors to:

- Determine structure of the new unit
- Redefine the curricula for Teacher Education (Kindergarten through 12th grade)
- Become familiar with new research findings about student learning and teaching methods
- Learn how to apply technology to classrooms (including computers)

\$10 per person for one day workshop August 26. (60 persons)	\$ 600.00
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\$20 per person for two-day workshop in early December	1,200.00
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\$20 per person for two-day workshop in February	1,200.00
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Total for Workshops	\$ 3,000.00
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2. Two minicomputers for faculty learning and use and for secretarial use in developing new curricula, (including printers) - about \$6,000 each	12,000.00
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3. One secretary to type curricular materials and correspondence related to the program	8,000.00
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4. Faculty research time-action research related to local classrooms. Two positions	70,000.00
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5. Faculty time for developing collaborative class- room programs with local school districts for providing in-service training for classroom teachers. Two positions	70,000.00
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6. Visiting professorship to bring experts in the field to work with local professors in developing new programs and research; includes travel expenses and partial accomodation costs.	100,000.00
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First-year implementation total	\$ 263,000.00
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Second year

Workshops - two two-day sessions	2,400.00
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Maintenance and materials for computer	1,000.00
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Faculty research time - two positions	70,000.00
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Faculty program development - one position	35,000.00
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Visiting professorship funds	100,000.00
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	\$ 208,400.00
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Third Year

Workshops - two two-day sessions	\$	2,400.00
Maintenance and materials for computer		1,000.00
Faculty research time - one position		35,000.00
Faculty program development		35,000.00
Visiting professorship funds		50,000.00
Third Year Total	\$	123,400.00



REVITALIZING TEACHER EDUCATION THROUGH RESEARCH;
IMPLICATIONS OF A STUDY AT NORTHERN ARIZONA UNIVERSITY

by

Louis I. Pollock, Jr.

Throughout the 1983 North Central Association Teacher Education Workshop at Northern Arizona University, the participating teacher preparation institutions reported a greater movement toward scholarship and research. For many of the colleges and universities, this represented a departure from their more traditional role as teaching institutions; this has created some anxiety among faculty. In the California State University system, for example, research is now being encouraged (Morey, 1983, pp. 92-94), even though the primary institution for research in the University of California system has traditionally been the University of California system. With heavier teaching loads it is little wonder that instructors in the former system might feel concern over the new expectations. The respective needs for both teaching and research have created what Bullough (1982, p. 207) referred to as "Professional Schizophrenia", and a general confusion of purposes among teacher educators.

While teaching will always be of paramount importance for institutions engaged in preparing teachers, an increasing emphasis toward scholarship and research can serve to revitalize the image of the profession, provide staff development, focus on improving the quality of teacher education graduates. Certainly many are already engaged in these pursuits.

"Our study reveals dramatically that SCDE (schools, colleges, departments of education) faculty are at best as productive in scholarly matters as their colleagues in other units in terms of frequency and duration of publishing. As with the matter of 'irrelevancy' to schools, SCDE's ought to assert their claims in this area, so critical to credibility in higher education." (Ducharme and Agne, 1982, p. 36).

The quantity of scholarship thus is not lacking, as some might have suspected. The qualitative dimension, however, is somewhat in question, not because the research itself is of little value but because relatively little emphasis has been placed on studying the task of preparing teachers. What makes an effective teacher? How can such teachers be prepared by revitalized teacher education programs?

Research into effective teaching often focuses on the classroom model, and while this information is important, it needs to be taken from its lofty but dusty shelf and put to work in the task of producing effective teachers: "While knowledge for the sake of knowledge is interesting, it should not be the final goal of effectiveness research. The ultimate goal must be to use this knowledge to develop effective teachers for children." (Chevrette and Rupley, 1983, p. 13). To this end, a good body of existing teacher preparation scholarship consists of program evaluation, usually through the use of graduate follow-up study. Such research can provide information about course effectiveness, the proper sequence of courses, factors relating to the achievement and success of graduates after entering the profession, better methods of instruction, and the degree to which the stated objectives and competencies of teacher education programs are being realized: "According to NCATE, the maintenance of acceptable teacher education programs demands a continuous process of evaluation of the graduates of existing programs..." (Kirk, 1982, p. 4).

Such evaluative research, however, is after-the-fact, and does not always provide insight into the effectiveness of teacher preparation in general and specifically into the student teaching event itself. Certainly there is much to learn about teacher preparation. In his sociological perspective on teaching, Lortie (1975, p. 60) suggested that when compared with other professions and trades, the educational preparation of teachers is rather unsophisticated. Mackey (1977, pp. 231-232) reviewed research on teacher education and urged adoption of research findings, calling the state of the art somewhat primitive. The student teaching experience specifically has been suggested for further study. Concerned that the student teaching component of teacher preparation programs is currently required by every state granting certification, Zelnher (1978, p. 60) urged additional examination of the practice:

It is naive to think we know all there is to know about student teaching at present. Additional research is needed which probes more deeply into its subtle process and which can increase our understanding of the event itself.

In view of the emphasis given to student teaching by state certification organizations, by teacher preparation institutions, and by educators themselves, such research seems warranted. For aspiring teachers, the student teaching program, the culminating experience of educational preparation becomes the most significant experience of their professional development. To what extent then are student teaching programs able to produce effective teachers? To answer this question, research into the dynamics of student teaching itself certainly seems called for.

One recent example of a study which was designed to gain some understanding of the degree to which the student teaching event contributed to the preparation of effective teachers was conducted at Northern Arizona University (Pollock, 1983), the site of the 1983 North Central Association Teacher Education Workshop. Because of the implications it has for those who prepare teachers, this study demonstrated the value of examining the teaching internship. Following a review of the "growing data base in teacher effectiveness" (Chevette and Rupley, 1983, p. 6), it was decided to focus on the self-fulfilling prophecy phenomenon. Brophy and Good (1974, p. 309) concluded that "teachers who tend to overestimate the ability of students get better results than teachers who underestimate." (p. 309). Good (1981, pp. 415-422), following a comprehensive review of the last decade of research into teacher expectations, concluded that high achievement among students is associated with positive teacher expectations. Preparing effective teachers, it was then felt, would seem to imply certifying educators who have high expectations for student achievement.

How to produce teachers with high student achievement expectations was a much more difficult question than selecting one component of the body of teaching effectiveness research to study. What mechanism, for example, operates in those teachers with high expectations? How can teacher educators enhance these attitudes among student teachers? For this investigation, it was felt that the teacher's level of self-confidence in the teaching role might provide an answer to these questions. Good (1981, p. 420) when summarizing expectancy research, emphasized the possible affective relationship between self-confidence in the role of the teacher and the belief in students' ability to learn: "Thus the belief that students can learn and that the teacher can bring about learning would appear to be sufficient, although not necessary cause for learning." Similar beliefs were also expressed by Good (1980), Hurewitz and Hurewitz (1978) and Brophy and Evertson (1976).

Since preparing teachers who feel confident about their own teaching ability is a goal of the Northern Arizona University teacher education program - as well as for most teacher preparation institutions - it was felt important to study simultaneously the practicing teachers' beliefs about their own ability to teach and their students' abilities to learn. Furthermore, since student teaching is viewed developmentally, it was hoped that the student teaching model would increase the sense of teaching efficacy and that if Good's contention about the relationship of the two affective variables is correct, a concomitant increase in expectancy for student achievement might also be anticipated. It seemed necessary, therefore, to study the possible relationship between these two variables and to determine if there was any change in these attitudes, or their possible relationship from beginning to conclusion of student teaching.

In order to examine the concerns outlined above, one hundred and eleven students participating in student teaching at Northern Arizona University in Fall, 1982, were administered pre and post tests of research instruments designed to assess levels of confidence in the teaching role and expectation for student academic achievement. Administrations of the tests were conducted immediately prior to and immediately following the student teaching semester. The data obtained from the testing then were given appropriate statistical treatment in order to determine relationships and changes of affective variables within the sample.

The following conclusions were obtained:

1. There was only a very slight correlation between self-confidence in the teaching role and expectation levels for student academic achievement among student teachers immediately prior to student teaching. The similarity between the variables was too slight to have practical meaning and was thus inconclusive.
2. The relationship between the two variables immediately following student teaching was also inconclusive, although somewhat greater than before beginning student teaching.
3. Student teachers in this study made large gains in self-confidence from beginning to conclusion of student teaching. In particular, female student teachers made greater gains than men.
4. Student teachers began and concluded student teaching with the same levels of expectation for student academic achievement from their pupils.

In summary, the findings of this study demonstrated that student teachers in all categories increased their levels of role self-confidence. No change, however, occurred from beginning to conclusion of student teaching in the levels of role self-confidence and expectations for student achievement among the student teachers in this sample. It was concluded that student teachers began and finished student teaching with virtually the same perceptions of the chances for academic success from their pupils as they held at the beginning of student teaching assignment.

At first glance, the results of such student teaching research confirms the ability of the practicum to increase teacher confidence. The results seem far less conclusive about the ability of a program to produce effective teachers, at least in terms of the results of academic expectations research. A closer examination, however, suggests conclusions which have implications for teaching in general, and specifically for those who prepare teachers.

The fact that expectations for student academic achievement did not change - either positively or negatively - throughout the student teaching experience was surprising. It was even thought that the level of expectations might decline. Other research (Dispoto, 1980, pp. 190-95) has documented examples of negative effective changes during student teaching, and while a negative direction was not desired, some kind of attitudinal change, even if negative, still was anticipated.

It would appear that the student teachers in this research sample had formed attitudes about their students' ability-to-learn prior to student teaching, and the events of the internship did little to change them. A teacher preparation program such as the one at Northern Arizona University, therefore, may be very successful at improving the skills of teacher candidates and at making them feel they can manage the events of learning, but if the program is not able to enhance the intern's perceptions about the learning ability of their students, there remains some question about the potential effectiveness of the teacher graduates from this program.

This lack of change in one attitude also forced a closer look at the contrasts in the two affective dimensions being studied. Self-confidence, it was felt, represented an inward or self-directed attitude whereas academic expectations were outward, or other-directed. Viewed from this perspective, it was apparent that the student teachers' attitudes toward themselves as teachers changed positively, but their outward directed feelings toward their students specifically in terms of their perceptions of the students' ability to succeed academically, did not change. The data in this study thus seemed to support the notion that teachers see lack of mastery as the fault of the students and not of the teaching method, the curriculum, or even themselves.

Such possible conclusions have implications well beyond the student teaching event. If teachers in general, and the student teachers in this research sample in particular, do not believe that all students can master the material presented in the classroom, it is little wonder that many teachers resist change, attend inservice reluctantly, hold research findings suspect, and rarely adopt new methods. For such teachers, there would be little point in trying new ideas or creating new methods if, from their perspective, only a preconceived number of students could be expected to achieve mastery. (At the very minimum, faculty lounge gossip takes on far more serious overtones: "This is my worst class ever;" "How can I teach them anything when they don't know how to do simple addition?")

Research such as this obviously provides serious implications for teacher preparation programs and suggests the need for additional study. How do student teachers acquire predisposed attitudes about student abilities to learn? What

steps can teacher education programs take to enhance these levels of expectation for pupil achievement among student teachers? If Bloom (1971), is correct, a far greater number of students can achieve mastery of classroom material. An important first step toward greater pupil mastery, however, is creating a belief system in teachers that these higher levels of achievement are possible. Surely teacher education has the ethical responsibility for promoting such a belief system in its student teachers. Teacher preparation curricula have to become more responsive to the implications of teacher education research.

The example cited above illustrates the importance of research into the practicum itself. Rather than after-the-fact follow-up studies, more research is needed which will probe the dynamics of teacher preparation and specifically student teaching. Quite simply, how can teacher educators know they are developing highly effective teachers? What aspects of the teacher preparation program should be enhanced or discarded? Hall and Hord, (1982, p. 3) have written:

We've seen the frail craft of teacher education tossed upon the seas of uncertainty and public outcry; one wave of criticism after another has been launched. We think teacher education has been adrift for an unconsciousable amount of time. We are ready to get on with charting a course for good harbor and stop bailing water.

It has been the purpose of this paper to suggest that teacher education research (to extend the metaphor) can provide the directional beacon leading to calmer seas and better sailing. Such necessary research will be instrumental in revitalizing teacher education.

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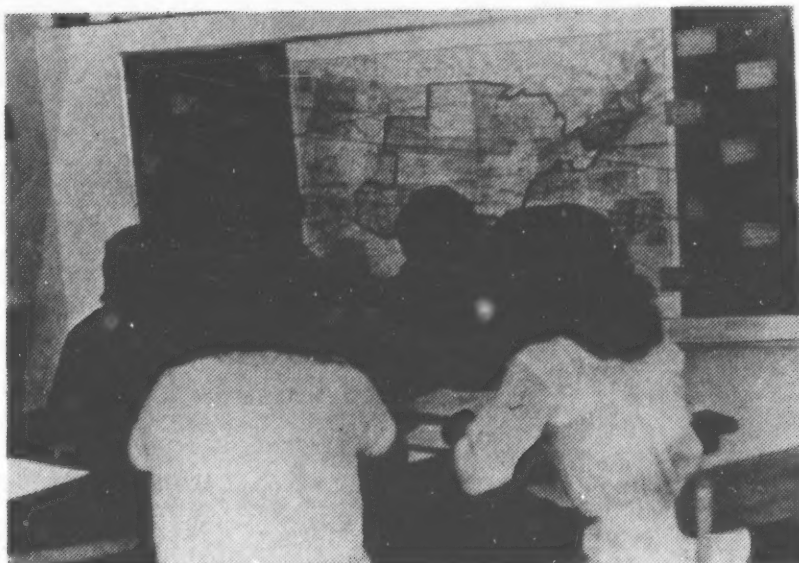
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PRE-STUDENT TEACHING FIELD EXPERIENCE

by

Jimmie Russell

Introduction

As early as 1904 Dewey expressed the need for field experience to be a part of the training of every future teacher for the purpose of translating the theory learned at the university into practice in the classroom. Teacher training institutions responded to this need by requiring student teaching as a part of their teacher preparation. Student teaching was usually reserved until some time during the senior year, with teacher trainees having no first-hand contact with children prior to the student teaching semester. It was not uncommon for students to realize at that time that teaching was not really what they thought it would be, or for the institution to determine that some students could not work effectively with children. It has become increasingly evident that doing well in content or methods courses does not necessarily translate into the ability to teach effectively.

The abstract methodology taught at the college/university prior to student teaching is not enough because these ideals are often lost in the realities of the classroom. Methodology without experience has proven to be ineffective, yet, experience without methodology is not the answer, either. The teacher education profession is coming to grips with the fact that theory and practice are two sides of the same coin, and, therefore, teacher training must include content methodology and practical classroom experience in the proper doses to be maximally effective. In recent years state legislators as well as teacher educators have seized upon this theme and because the existing gap between theory and practice does not appear to have been bridged successfully, these various entities are attempting to respond to the cries for relevancy that have echoed throughout the nation by mandating more early field experience.

Almost every first year teacher will confirm that working with children in an actual classroom setting is a considerable contrast from hearing about, reading about, talking about or even writing about teaching (Swager, 1980, p. 87) (Krustchinsky, 1981, p. 119). Also, Cardelle (1981, p. 81) reports that students express time and time again that the most valuable thing that occurs in their course work is the opportunity to work with children. The practice of waiting until student teaching to interact in an actual classroom setting is no

longer acceptable. It is important for a teacher trainee to "...gain insight, comprehension, and knowledge about the totality of the teaching/learning process before student teaching (Beach and Reinhartz, 1978, p. 35)." For these reasons, the recent trend in teacher training has been toward more and earlier pre-student teaching field experiences.

Because of this trend, increased early field experiences brings with it a need for research data to determine the impact of such experiences on the pre-student teachers. There is great diversity in field experience programs, and it is imperative that due to curricular demands, the kinds of experiences that are most efficient and of most benefit to the prospective teacher be determined.

In a review of the literature on outcomes of pre-student teaching field experiences, Olsen (1981, pp. 47-50) determined that, even though the conclusions from researchers were not always consistent, an overall analysis of the data suggested support for positive changes in certain knowledge, attitude, and knowledge-skill paradigms. Strongest evidence indicated that the pre-student teachers, as a result of their varied field experiences, made most gains in knowledge of the teaching profession, knowledge/skills in human relations, knowledge about their attitudes toward children. Gain, though not strongly supported, was also found in the areas of knowledge/skills in teaching, attitude toward teaching, and knowledge/skills in planning. Knowledge of subject matter, knowledge/skills in classroom management, and attitude toward the self were supported somewhat by the evidence, while little evidence was found in the available data for attitude changes toward subject matter.

Olsen concludes

...some of what was known and done intuitively in teacher education is reaffirmed by research. Intuitively teacher educators have known that exposure to children in schools provides knowledge, attitudes, and behavior/skills that would be difficult, if not impossible, to develop on the university campus or elsewhere other than school. Olsen (1981, p. 50)

Since early field experiences seem to be an important part of teacher training, it is appropriate to discuss components which should be present in early clinical field experience programs. It will, therefore, be the purpose of the remainder of this paper to examine selected goals of pre-student teaching, clinical experiences, to discuss how to set up an ideal early field experience program built on the university/school partnership concept, and finally, to explore the future of clinical experiences in teacher education so that preparation can be made for teacher training institutions to take charge in shaping the future.

Goals of Early Field Experience

The development of goals of an early field experience program are necessary before curricular strategies can be planned effectively. The Indiana ATE (1978, p. 4-5) identified a broad and inclusive set of goals relevant to the needs of developing teacher education candidates. These goals are:

1. To provide for exploration of career opportunities in teaching and related career fields.
2. To enable the student to participate in an hierarchical, sequential, and developmental set of experiences at different educational levels, cultural settings, and community sites.
3. To establish for the student an experiential base upon which to judge the relationship of his/her total university program with on-site experience.
4. To establish evaluative patterns that promote a more effective selection process of teacher education candidates.
5. To establish mutually beneficial levels of communication and orientation between all partners, agencies, and institutions involved.
6. To enrich the program of the public or private school where the experience takes place.
7. To sharpen teacher candidates' perceptions of the teaching-learning process.
8. To provide the greatest possible opportunity for awareness of the many agents of education.
9. To help the teacher candidate become aware of and involved in the multiple roles and responsibilities of the teacher.
10. To allow a student to exercise increasing degrees of classroom management skills, planning, teaching and assessment skills and responsibility in a supportive and facilitative environment. ATEI (1978)

When translated into practice, these broad goals suggest a plethora of possibilities for early field experiences.

Factors for Implementing a Successful Program

Elliot and Mays (1979) caution that there has been conflict between the theoretical orientation of the university, and the practical reality orientation of the public schools because these institutions tend to function independently of one another. The authors contend that a truly workable early field experience program requires a partnership between schools and

teacher preparation institutions. Roles and responsibilities of both university and public school personnel involved in the process should be defined jointly. In addition, effective communication between the public schools and university is vital for the continuing success of the program. Elliott and Mays (1979, pp. 12-14) offer five steps for implementing a program that they believe will lead to an effective school-university partnership in teacher education. Following are the suggestions with a discussion of each one.

1. Initiating the program. This first step involves bringing together representatives from the university, the schools, and selected parents who are interested for the purpose of discussing the possibility of jointly developing an early field experience program. An early field experience council could be organized to determine what the program is, how it will operate, and how it will be administered and evaluated. The council would continue to exist even after the program is developed.

The early field experience council should be made up of persons from both the university and public schools. Joint membership on the council insures that there will be cooperative control and decision making. The school and university have different, yet related, viewpoints of early field experiences, and each would make its own unique contribution in planning, carrying out, and evaluating the program. Further, the joint coordinating body would reduce the possibility of unilateral decision making. A feeling of joint responsibility and accountability is important for the continued success of the program (ATE, 1970, pp. 28-33).

2. Program clarification for participants. In order for early field experiences to be effective, all concerned must be thoroughly familiar with the aims of the program and the areas of responsibility each is expected to assume. One way to disseminate this information is through an orientation for teachers and administrators in the form of in-service training. It should be instituted as soon as is feasible because the absence of knowledge regarding the roles of those involved can frustrate the personnel participating in the program.

The Indiana ATE (1979, pp. 16-19) recommends that in the initial step, the university personnel meet with representatives from the schools involved to discuss the desired activities and experiences. It would then be necessary to plan the in-service cooperatively with consideration being given to the purpose of the orientation, whom to invite, if attendance will be mandatory or voluntary, and the length of the orientation.

In-service activities should include a discussion of the various laboratory requirements and a list of recommended activities to be distributed for discussion. Any forms that

will be used should be explained and deadlines clarified. To enhance the sense of sharing in the responsibility of educating pre-service teachers, time ought to be allotted for input from teachers and administrators. In addition, time should be given for questions and answers. With open communication between the university representative and school personnel at the orientation session, a higher degree of program effectiveness can be expected.

3. Sequencing student participation. Contact must be made with the participating schools or agencies to determine which teachers have expressed a desire to work with early experience students. As a pre-student teacher progresses through the program and participates in various field experiences, the person charged with the responsibility of making early field experience assignments should be mindful of the pertinent literature stressing that field experience should be available to students in a variety of classroom situations, in several schools, and with a variety of teaching models (Beach and Reinhartz, 1978, p. 35). "Experiences, individualized to the needs of each student, are therefore encouraged to introduce the novice to such diverse educational settings as the traditional and open classrooms, inner city and rural schools, bilingual or multicultural communities, or other community educational programs (Indiana ATE, 1978, p. 7)." While it may not be feasible to provide all possible situations for every student, a variety of educational settings which will enable the student to experience special adaptations should be made available.

4. Specific tasks for student participation. It is essential to take a systematic approach when designing activities for pre-student teachers. The first experiences should deal with developing observation skills in an attempt to create awareness of the interactions that take place between teacher-student, teacher-administrator, and teacher-teacher. The student should next be assigned specific tasks such as working with an individual pupil, working with small groups, and/or clerical duties such as record keeping and grading papers.

Important benefits of carefully sequenced early field experiences are increased opportunities for the teacher trainee to "try out" the methodology presented in college classes, Bush (1977, p. 6) discusses the kind of practice and accompanying supervision that is necessary if early field experiences are to develop more effective teachers.

It is not just practice, but frequent, varied, and criticized practice; observation, immediate feedback, and practice again to perfect the original performance; practice in a variety of situations with different ages and socioeconomic levels of students; observation by a variety of observers-

supervisors, peers, students--each of whom can observe from a different vantage point; practice in teaching an individual child, a small group of five to eight, and in regular sized classes with ample time to discuss what went on and why; practice in observing different learning styles in pupils, and in observing and then trying out different teaching styles and strategies to match these learning styles of pupils; time to reflect, to try different things in a "safe" atmosphere where failure and mistakes can be experienced productively; practice not only individually, but in teams where division of labor and critical peer observation and feedback takes place.

The result of this kind of intensive practice would be the acquisition of greater competence and confidence by the teacher trainee.

5. Coordinating the office for early field experiences. The final suggestion for implementing an early field experience program is the establishment of an office with one person to administer the early field experience program, depending upon the size of the teacher education program. The duties of this person would include making contacts with schools and agencies, orienting students and participating staff, assigning students, and maintaining a master schedule of placements. This office director would also act as a continuing liaison between the schools and the university in such areas as handling problems, conducting evaluations, and making necessary changes to make the program more effective.

Although the preceding suggestions were intended as a guide for establishing an early field experience program, they could also be used by a university that is interested in improving the quality of the existing early field experience program.

The Future of Early Field Experience

It is imperative in achieving optimum effectiveness of pre-student teaching clinical experiences that goals for an early field experience program be delineated, and it is equally important that implementation be systematic. An additional consideration for all forward-looking institutions is that of forecasting the future, for a look into the future on all levels of clinical field experience will offer insight and direction in planning for and shaping future programs (Abrell, 1982, p. 284). If there is an awareness of where clinical field experiences should be headed, it will be possible for teacher educators to create the future of field experience by what they do and fail to do.

Abrell (1982, pp. 285-286) extrapolates from current trends three forecasts regarding clinical experiences. These forecasts

are paraphrased as follows:

1. There will be an increase in the number and types of clinical experiences; they will occur earlier, be better sequenced, be more closely supervised and be better evaluated. Because of the trend toward a more pluralistic society, the field practice will be in a wider variety of settings to allow for cross cultural experiences. With the present trend of requiring more and more field experience, there may evolve programs with much practice and little theory.
2. There will be a need for meticulous documentation of field experience throughout the training programs for every teacher trainee in order that a review may be done by prospective employers, parents, students, and state offices of education. These persons and agencies will be looking for evidence of quality in the students' clinical experiences.
3. Demonstration of minimum competencies will be a must in each and every field experience.

Before these projections are realized, professional educators should evaluate their efficacy in order to not only more clearly define, but also redirect the course of the early field experiences. While some of these trends would undoubtedly be positive, there are some that may prove not to be. If so, they must be more closely examined so that weaknesses can be avoided.

While increased clinical field experiences may occur earlier and be better sequenced, more closely supervised, and better evaluated, this trend undoubtedly will tread the fine line between that which is theoretically abstract and that which is realistically practical. On the one hand, field experiences must be afforded the prospective teacher, yet this experience without the necessary theoretical foundation might completely undermine the teaching profession. The general education and the mastery of a content area of future teachers must not be sacrificed; rather they must remain a central focus of the well-rounded professional education program. What is needed, then, are teachers with the broad based foundation from which to apply that which is learned through practical experience.

The appropriate blend of theory and practice, as yet, has not been empirically established, and, perhaps, may even prove to vary from institution to institution and, indeed, from state to state and from individual to individual. Not only should individual student needs be assessed, but institutional program constraints are important. Curriculum demands in the form of general education requirements, state mandates, major course of study demands, and considerations such as resources and participating schools available, travel demands, and so on will

seriously limit some programs. Rather than to go from one extreme to the other (as some will tend to do by providing programs based primarily on field experience) it might be best, until more research can be completed in this vital area, to pursue a more moderate approach. Thereby, a certain perspective between abstract methods courses and field experiences should be established.

Summary

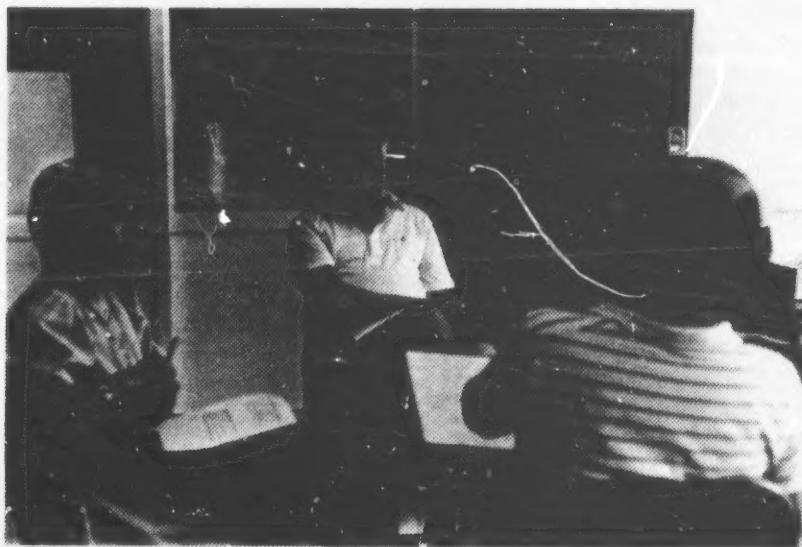
The implementation of early clinical field experiences, though not new, is realizing its full potential as a valuable tool in teacher training. Programs must include clearly defined goals and be systematically implemented. However, it must be reiterated that establishing exactly what the role of clinical experience should be in the process must be studied further in order to apply this knowledge in the most effective manner. Therefore, as this role is more clearly defined, the task of teacher education institutions will be to develop pre-student teaching programs that will be properly sequenced, adequately supervised, and evaluated, and that will achieve the optimum effectiveness in bringing the teacher to the safe-to-practice level. It is imperative that the teacher education profession take an active leadership role in establishing these criteria in order to redirect not only the course of teacher education in general toward improvement, but to also redirect the image of teacher education in the eyes of the public.

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A CHALLENGE TO STANDARDS:
LEGISLATION FOR THE HANDICAPPED

by

Henry N. Worrest

Recent criticism of education within the United States has brought with it a concern for the quality of teachers being prepared by our colleges and universities for entry into the teaching profession. As a reaction to these concerns, state legislatures, state boards of public education or some similar state agencies charged with the responsibility to oversee teacher certification or licensing and having the authority to establish regulations for such certification or license, have started to add a variety of additional qualifications to the traditional teacher preparation program. Frequently such additional qualifications include the passing of a test, or a series of tests, aimed at having the candidate verify competence in such basic skills as reading, writing and mathematics. Additional tests may cover such things as competence in the subject(s) to be taught and a test covering various topics related to the theory and practice of pedagogy.

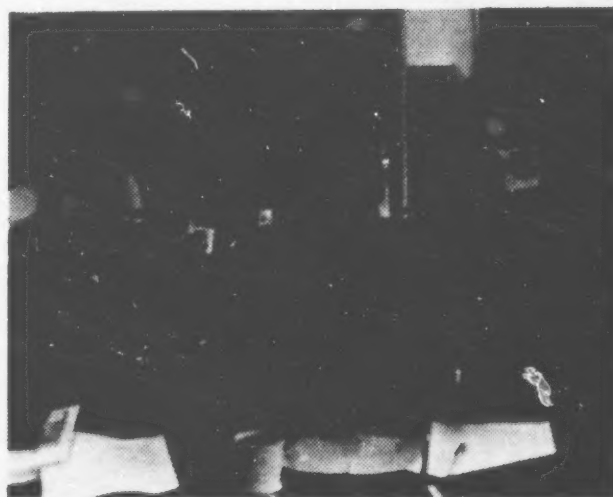
A question which comes to mind is, "Are these testing procedures in conflict with Public Law 94-142 and Section 504 of the Higher Education Act?" Both of these acts were developed to provide handicapped students access to education. The acts provide for a wide range of services which now make it possible for many students to complete college or university degrees, students who prior to the implementation of these laws would have been systematically eliminated from educational opportunities. Some of the handicapping conditions experienced by these students are such that they may result in what would normally be referred to as illiteracy.

Another question to be asked is, "Are our governments going to speak with forked tongues, saying both, you can graduate from college and at the same time saying, but you may not do the job for which you have been prepared?" It appears that although our normal conception of literacy is nice, there are many handicapped individuals who (being highly intelligent) have learned to cope with their handicaps and have developed alternative learning modes which allow them to be successful learners. If these handicapped individuals are able to cope with the difficulties of learning, is it not possible that they can learn to cope with the problems of teaching and be able to demonstrate competence as a teacher in a classroom?

Probably a person who is incapable of reading would not be able to teach reading; however, there are many other subjects which they possibly could teach with success. Consider the following possibilities: physical education, art, industrial arts, social studies, home economics, instrumental music. There are certainly problems to be overcome, but they are not necessarily insurmountable.

Finally, there may be some concern about the response of the profession to a relaxation of "standards" for handicapped persons. Generally speaking, teachers are very much aware of the amount they learn through reading and how often in the course of their daily activities that they must read. However, these same teachers are the ones who should be most aware of the provisions of P.L. 94-142 and Section 504. They are also the ones who should be most aware of the learning possibilities which derive from different learning styles, for, to be successful with the widest range of pupils, they know it is important to provide a variety of learning opportunities. Finally, teachers should be most proud of the success of the handicapped, for teachers had a great deal to do with providing the opportunities for that success.

The thrust of this paper has been that before rules are made to eliminate a certain portion of our population from the teaching profession, those who make the rules had better determine what the standards really should be. Perhaps there should be different standards for each teaching specialty rather than one set of standards for all teachers. As a matter of fact, it may be highly appropriate for everyone entering the teaching profession to be able to demonstrate control of the competencies most directly related to the specific discipline or area to be taught. Developing such standards will require more effort but the end results may be more equitable for all concerned.



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